OUTLINES

OF

INDIAN HISTORY

FOR USE IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN INDIA.

BY

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HISTORY OF INDIA.

INTRODUCTION.

1. **Ancient name.**—The name generally given by early Hindu writers to India is **Bharata Varsha**, "the land of Bharata." This Bharata is said to have been a celebrated king, who ruled over a vast extent of territory in ancient days.

2. **The Aborigines.**—Of the aborigines, *that is*, the first inhabitants of the country, little is known. The **Khonds** in Central India, the **Bhils** in Rajputana, the **Santals** in Bengal, the **Todas** in Southern India, and many others, are generally regarded as aboriginal tribes.

3. **The Turanians.**—The first strangers that entered the country were the ancestors of the four great races of Southern India, speaking the four languages, *Tamil*, *Telugu*, *Malayalam*, and *Kanarese*. They are generally supposed to have been **Turanians** of Mongolian and Scythian descent, who came from **Tartary** and **Tibet**, and entered India by the passes of the Himalaya mountains. They have been called **Dravidians**, from **Dravida**, the name of that part of South India peopled by them.

4. **The Aryans.**—Following those Turanians came a people, who called themselves **Arya**, that is, 'noble.' Their home was in the plateau of Central Asia, somewhere near the source of the river **Oxus**. They were a

brave and enterprising people, and as they increased in numbers, many of them began to look out for better and richer lands to dwell in. Some of them came south and took up their abode at first on the banks of the river **Sindhu** (Indus); and their Persian neighbours, naming them after the river on whose banks they had settled, called them **Hindus.** Fresh swarms of their countrymen from time to time came and settled besides these, so that after many many years, they became so numerous and powerful, that they crossed the Sindhu and took possession of the country on its eastern bank. But they were not allowed to do so unopposed. The original inhabitants of the country, who were at that time called **Rakshasas** (Giants), **Pishachas** (Demons), and **Dasyas** (Demigods), were soon up in arms against the invaders, and many fierce fights would seem to have taken place. Steadily, however, though slowly, the Aryans continued to advance, until they overran the valley of the Ganges and occupied Central India. The whole of the country thus conquered by them was called by the Hindu writers **Aryavarta,** 'abode of the Aryans,' and it included all the provinces, "as far as the eastern and as far as the western oceans between the two mountains" (the Himalaya and the Vindhya mountains). This part of India, the Persians called **Hindustan,** 'the land of the Hindus,' while the country south of the **Vindhya** range began to be known as the **Deccan.**

5. When the Greeks invaded the country, they dropped the aspirate in Hindu, and called the people **Indoi.** Hence the name **India,** now applied to all that country lying between the Himalayas and Cape Comorin, the Indus and the Brahmaputra.

6. The Persians, Greeks and Parsis.—People of various other nations afterwards came into India. The Persians under **Darius Hystaspes,** king of Persia, entered India about 520 B.C.; and the Greeks under **Alexander the Great,** king of Macedon, in 327 B.C. In the seventh century of the Christian era, a little band of **Parsi** immigrants, who had been driven from their native land by the Khalif Omar, landed on the west coast and settled down at Surat. They are at the present day about seventy

thousand in number: and from their intelligence and enterprising spirit, they form an important community in Bombay and on the western coast.

7. The Muhammadans.—Next, but at a great distance of time, came the **Muhammadans.** By degrees they conquered the country and adopted to a great extent the language and habits of the people they overcame. Probably not more than one-half of the Muhammadans in India at the present day are of foreign descent. They may be divided into four classes—**Sayyids**, who claim to be descended from the Prophet Muhammad; **Mughals**, descendants of the Tartar conquerors of India; **Pathans**, of Afghan descent; **Sheikhs**, including all that do not belong to any one of the other three classes.

8. Other elements have since been introduced into the population of India. The **Portuguese**, the **Dutch**, and the **Danes**, successively formed settlements in India. The **French** and the **English** have also come into the country; but the great bulk of the population is still essentially Hindu, and the influence of what may be called the Indo-Aryan race is still paramount.

9. Population and Languages.—The population of India at the present day is about two hundred and fifty millions; but this great multitude of people is not made up of *one* but of *many* nations speaking a great many different languages. There are in India certainly not fewer than one hundred languages and dialects of languages spoken. But though the population thus consists of so many nations, speaking so many different languages, there is but *one sacred language*, one sacred literature common to all Hindus, and held in great respect by them. That language is **Sanskrit**, and that literature is Sanskrit literature.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY VEDIC TIMES.

10. It has been said that the great bulk of the population is still essentially Hindu, and that the influence of the Aryans in the country is still much greater than that of any of the other invaders. What then was the earliest religious system of this people? What the nature of their Government and of their social life?

11. The Vedas.—The earliest religious system of the Hindus is to be found in the **Vedas**, books written in the Sanskrit language. The word Veda means knowledge, and is applied to divine, *unwritten* knowledge. There are four Vedas, called the **Rig-Veda**, the **Yajur-Veda**, the **Sama-Veda**, and the **Atharva-Veda**. These again may be divided into three parts; the *Hymns* or *Mantras*, the *Brahmanas* and the *Upanishads*. They are the compositions of different poets who lived in very early times; but no one can tell exactly when they were written.

12. The Mantras.—The Mantras are the oldest. When they were written, the Aryans were still quietly settled on the banks of the Sindhu. These Mantras are, therefore, very interesting, as they tell of the nature of the religion, and of the social condition of the Aryan ancestors of the Hindus. The Aryans were a pastoral and agricultural people. The increase of their flocks and the produce of their crops depended very much on the elements; hence, their religion consisted in 'the worship of the elements, that is, of fire, air, earth and water.' The Mantras are, therefore, addressed to **Indra**, the god of rain, to **Agni**, the god of fire, and to **Surya**, the sun. In those early Mantras, there is no allusion to transmigration, nor are the people forbidden to travel into foreign lands. Idols were not worshipped in those early times, and there was no caste distinction. From the Mantras we also learn that the Aryans, in those early days, possessed chariots, houses, ships and mailed armour, which shows that they had a certain amount of civilization.

13. The Brahmanas.—The Brahmanas were written long after the Mantras, and during this long interval of time many great changes were introduced into the religion of the people especially with reference to sacrifices. One class of the people, too, who called themselves **Brahmans**, from 'Brahma' (God), became the *priests* of the people, and as they alone could offer the sacrifices, they gradually rose to great power in the State. The Brahmanas contain the ritual to be observed at these sacrifices, together with explanations of the origin and meaning of such sacrifices. In the earliest Vedic times, sacrifices, consisted of butter and the juice of the soma plant; but at the time when the Brahmanas were written, and which is, therefore, called the **Brahmanic period**, animal and even human sacrifices were offered. The Brahmans however, do not seem to have looked on human sacrifices with favour, and, accordingly, horses, goats, oxen and sheep were substituted. The Brahmans officiated as priests, and they soon came to be regarded as the medium of communication between God and man They continued steadily to grow in power and influence; and the power, thus acquired, was exercised by them in a very despotic way. Laws of such a kind were introduced as to exalt the Brahmans over the other classes, and though no doubt the Brahmans were opposed again and again by the fighting men (Kshatriyas), as indicated in the legend of Parasu Rama destroying the whole race of Kshatriyas twenty-one times, still the latter had at last to acknowledge their superiority or die. But after a time a change followed. The people began to feel it to be a great hardship and loss to have to sacrifice so many sheep and goats, and to dislike the Brahmans very much for their pride and their oppression. And, accordingly when one, **Sakya Muni**, afterwards known as **Buddha**, arose amongst them, telling them that all men were equal and that animal sacrifices were of no use as an expiation for sin, they listened eagerly to his teaching and became his followers. Para. (25).

14. The Upanishads.—The Upanishads, a collection of religious tracts full of philosophical speculation form the third part of the Vedas.

CHAPTER II.

LAWS OF MANU.

15. The Code of Manu.—The book next in age and certainly next in importance to the Vedas is the Code of **Manu.** The exact date of its composition is not known but the authorship is generally ascribed to the sage, Manu. The Code of Manu makes known to us the rules by which the Brahmans were enabled to obtain the chief power in the State, and to establish the system of caste.

16. Four Castes.—The people were divided into *Four Castes.* **Brahmans,** priests; **Kshatriyas,** warriors; **Vaisyas,** agriculturists; and **Sudras,** servants. The first three of these classes were called the "twice-born," because at a certain age they were invested with a sacred string, as a sign of their receiving a second or spiritual birth. The **Brahmans** as having sprung from the mouth of the Creator, and as being in possession of the Vedas, were the lords of all classes. The **Kshatriyas** were held in high estimation; but the Raja had always a Brahman minister as his adviser, and acted as directed by him. The **Vaisyas** also had their privileges. They, too, were called the "twice born;" but all their household ceremonies, to be rightly performed, had to be superintended by the Brahmans. The fourth class, **Sudras,** was probably to some extent made up of those of the Turanians that had not been driven by the Aryans into Southern India. They occupied the lowest place in the social scale. They were servants, but not slaves; and they were forbidden ever to become rich.

17. Government.—The Government was of a patriarchal character. The Raja was Raja by divine right, and his power was absolute. The country was divided into districts over which Governors were placed, and those Governors were entrusted with absolute power by the Raja. Under those Governors were subordinate Governors in a regular chain. The highest Governor was lord over a thousand towns, the next over one hundred, the next over twenty, the next over ten, and the lowest ruled over one town.

18. Revenue.—The revenue of the Raja was obtained by levying taxes on land, on the produce of labour, on certain metals, and on purchases and sales. A kind of poll tax, a small tax levied annually on every head of the population, was also imposed. The poorest classes, who were unable to pay taxes, gave the Raja one day's work every month.

19. Village Administration.—The administration of the villages resembled very much the Village System of the present day. The headman settled with the Raja the sum to be paid as revenue. This amount he apportioned out amongst the villagers, and he was responsible to the king for its collection, as also for the good conduct of the villagers. In return for this, he received from the Raja a piece of land rent free, and also sometimes a salary. He acted also as a judge, settled all disputes amongst the villagers, and received fees from them. Under the headman were other officials that were paid in a similar manner, either by a free grant of land, by fees or by a fixed salary.

20. Administration of Justice.—Justice was administered by the Raja in person, assisted by Brahmans. The Criminal Code was very severe on Sudra offenders, but Brahmans were treated with great leniency. The punishment for a crime was graduated according to the class or caste to which the offender belonged. For example, a Kshatriya insulting a Brahman was fined one hundred panas, a Vaisya doing the same had to pay one hundred and fifty panas, a Sudra doing the same was *whipped.*

21. Social Position of Women.—Women in the Code of Manu occupied a very inferior position. A widow was not allowed to remarry; but there is no allusion to *Sati.*

CHAPTER III.

THE RAMAYANA AND THE MAHABHARATA.

22. The Hindus from the earliest times were divided into many tribes or clans, but only two of those are celebrated in history. The one had its capital at **Ayodhya**, near the present *Oudh*, the other had its capital, first at **Prayag** *(Allahabad)*, and afterwards at **Hastinapura**, near the modern *Delhi*. Two races of kings are described as having reigned over those two states—the kings of Ayodhya tracing their descent from the sun—the kings of Prayag, from the moon. The history of those two kingdoms is to be found in the two celebrated poems, "The Ramayana" and "The Mahabharata."

23. The Ramayana.—The Ramayana, "the adventures of Rama," is said to have been compiled by Valmiki. The hero of the poem is Rama. He is now regarded as an incarnation of Vishnu. It is believed of him, that he came into the world to deliver it from a great monster, named **Ravana**, who was king of the Rakshasas, and who was doing a great deal of mischief on the earth. The story of Rama's banishment into the jungles of **Dandaka**,—of **Sita**, his wife, being carried off a captive by Ravana,—of Rama's grief at her loss, and search for her till he discovers that she is in Ravana's palace in **Ceylon**,—of Rama,—assisted by an army of monkeys, crossing to Ceylon, and after a great fight finally succeeding in killing Ravana with an arrow shot from the bow of **Siva**, and in recovering Sita,—is told in the most beautiful language. The poem is of *historical* importance, inasmuch as it shows that the Hindus even at this early period came south into the **Deccan** and that the island of **Ceylon** was known to them.

24. The Mahabharata.—The Mahabharata, 'the great war,' is in celebration of the lunar kings as the Ramayana is of the solar. The *founder* of the race was Buddha, who reigned at **Hastinapura**. He was the son of Soma, the *Moon*, and from him through a long line of descent, came **Dritarashtra** and **Pandu**, sons of **Vyasa**, the supposed author of the poem. Dritarashtra had one

hundred sons, who were called **Kurus** or **Kauravas**. Pandu had five sons. They were called **Pandus** or **Pandavas**. The poem is the history of a great war that took place between those two families for possession of the throne of **Hastinapura**. Almost all the chiefs of India joined either the one side or the other. **Krishna** (now worshipped as an incarnation of *Vishnu*), one of the most important persons in the poem, joined the Pandavas. The two armies met on the plain of **Kurukshetra**, 'the field of the **Kauravas**. For eighteen days the battle raged with the greatest fury, and thousands of the warriors lay dead or wounded. The Pandavas were in the end victorious. They took possession of the throne; but they held it only for a short time. The knowledge of having been the cause of the death of so many of their relatives made them very sad, and in their grief they gave up their kingdom, and set out for the Himalaya mountains, accompanied by **Draupadi**, the common wife of all the brothers. The god, Indra, there appeared unto them and took them up into heaven.

CHAPTER IV.

BUDDHA AND BUDDHISM.

25. Gautama Sakya Muni.—Gautama was the family name of Buddha. His father, Suddhodana, was Raja of the Sakyas, an Aryan tribe, that had settled at **Kapilavastu**. Gautama, therefore, belonged to the *Kshatriya* caste. Many wonderful stories are told of his birth and childhood. He was married, when quite young, to the beautiful **Gopa**. In his twenty-ninth year, ten years after his marriage, and while his son, **Rahula**, was but an infant, he suddenly left wife, child and home, and gave himself up entirely to religious study. The reason he assigned for this step was, that an angel had appeared to him in four visions, under the forms of a man broken down by age, of a sick man, of a decaying corpse, and lastly, of a hermit. On seeing these visions, he exclaimed, "youth, health, and life itself are but passing dreams:

they lead to age and disease, they end in death and corruption." He, thereupon, betook himself to the forests of **Uruvela**, near the modern *Gáya*, and gave himself up to the severest penance, hoping by that means to work out his salvation. He was reduced to a living skeleton; but continued as unhappy as ever. He, therefore, ceased to believe in the teaching of the Brahmans.

26. Gautama's New Faith.—Gautama finally devised a *New Faith.* He declared that happiness was to be obtained by 'self-control and love to others.' He affirmed that *all men were equal without respect of caste* and were equally capable of being saved. He told the people that animal sacrifices were of no use as an expiation for sin. He believed in transmigration, and declared that freedom from a continued succession of births was only to be obtained by giving up all sin, whether in thought, in word, or in deed. He that could do this would enter *Nirvaṅa*, that is, would be annihilated.

27. Converts to Buddhism.—Returning to Benares, Gautama, from this time known as **Buddha**, fearlessly preached this New Faith, and soon had many converts, including all the members of his own family. The simple morality of Buddhism made it pleasing to the people, and the knowledge, that animal sacrifices were no longer needed, brought relief and joy to many a poor man. No wonder, therefore, this New Faith spread all over the country, until for a time it became the chief religion in the land. Buddha (Gautama) died in 477 B.C.

CHAPTER V.

SCYTHIAN, PERSIAN, AND GREEK INVASIONS.

28. Little is known of the history of the various kingdoms of India for many centuries after 'the great war.' We learn, however, that the Hindus were not left in undisturbed possession of the land they had conquered.

29. The Scythians.—The first swarms of new invaders were of Scythian origin. They were called *Takshaks Serpents* by the Hindus, probably because there was

serpent painted on the flags they carried. They overthrew the kingdom of Magadha (paras. 33, 35,) and ten generations of Serpent kings reigned there before they were driven out. The last of the race was Nanda who was succeeded by his son, Chandragupta (Sandracottus), the founder of the Mauryan Dynasty.

6th Century. B.C.

30. Darius Hystaspes—521 B.C.-518 B.C.—The next invaders came from the west, from Persia, while Darius was king of that empire. Having learned from his admiral, **Skylax**, who had sailed down the Indus, how very rich and fertile a land India was, Darius built a bridge of boats, and, crossing the Indus, took possession of a large part of the country. This portion of India which he captured was so rich that it supplied *one third* of the whole revenue of the Persian empire.

31. Alexander the Great—327 B.C.-325 B.C.—Two centuries after this, the Persian empire itself was overthrown by Alexander the Great, king of Macedon in Greece. He was a very ambitious man and one of the greatest generals the world has ever seen. After conquering Persia, he crossed the Indus at **Attock** with one hundred and twenty thousand men, and advanced through the Punjab. The Hindu Rajas resolved to oppose him. Chief among these was **Porus**, whose kingdom lay between the Jhelum (Hydaspes) and the **Chenab**. Porus gathered his forces together, collected a great number of elephants on the eastern bank of the **Jhelum**, and awaited the advance of Alexander. When Alexander arrived at the Jhelum, he saw it would be impossible to force a passage across the river with such a large army as Porus had waiting to attack him from the opposite bank. Leaving the greater part of his army where it was, opposite to the army of Porus, Alexander, in the darkness of the night, led eleven thousand of his veteran troops ten miles up the river's bank, and crossed at an undefended part. In the early morning he attacked the enemy. The army of Porus fought long and well, but they were at last driven from the field. The elephants and other spoil fell into the hands of the conqueror, **Porus was forced to surrender**; but Alexander, admiring

327 B.C.

his bravery, restored his kingdom to him. Porus thereafter remained a faithful ally of his conqueror. Onward Alexander led his men, till he reached the Beas (Hyphasis). The mighty kingdom of Magadha lay in front of him. Its magnificent capital, Pataliputra (Palibothra, Patna), was a city nine miles in length. If he could advance thither and take this city, all Hindustan might be made subject to him. But a new and unexpected difficulty presented itself. His soldiers, who had been faithful and submissive so long, and who had been ever ready to advance at their General's command, now refused to obey his orders. Worn out with the fatigues of eight campaigns, they desired to be led home. Alexander entreated them to advance, but in vain. He was, therefore, forced to go away from India. When he reached the Satlej he built a fleet and sailed down the river. On his way he laid the foundation of several cities, the chief of which was Pattala. He sent part of his troops home by sea under the charge of his admiral Nearchus. The remainder he himself led back to Persia. Two years later, 323 B.C., Alexander died from the effects of jungle fever caught in the marshes of Babylon.

325 B.C.

CHAPTER VI.

INDO-SCYTHIANS—THE GUPTAS.

32. Seleucus.—On the death of Alexander, the kingdom he had established was broken up. The most eastern portion including Bactria, was taken possession of by his general, Seleucus, who resolved to complete the conquests begun by Alexander. He, accordingly, invaded India and marched against the kingdom of Magadha.

33. Magadha—change of dynasty.—Meanwhile a change had taken place in the dynasty that ruled over that kingdom. At the time of Alexander, the Takshak line of kings was still ruling (para. 29). Nanda the Rich was king. But on the withdrawal of Alexander from India, Nanda was killed, and Chandragupta ascended the throne.

Chandragupta drove the Greeks out of India, and extended the kingdom of Magadha as far as the Indus. He is thus said "to have brought the whole world under one umbrella," that is, to have brought the whole of Hindustan under one sovereignty. Chandragupta subsequently married the daughter of Seleucus and received a Greek ambassador named **Megasthenes** at his court. It is to this Megasthenes we are indebted for most of the information we possess respecting India at this period.

34. The Indo-Scythians.—The Indo-Scythians were the next invaders of India. Little is known of their history. They would appear to have been a brave and intelligent people. Advancing eastward to the Oxus, they swept down on Afghanistan, conquered the kingdom Seleucus had set up, and drove many of the Greeks and Bactrians before them into India. During the reign of **Kanishka**, the founder of the last dynasty, their empire included Afghanistan, Rajputana, Sindh, Gujarat and a large part of the Panjab and Kashmir. Not content with this they wanted to conquer Hindustan also. The Hindu Rajas united to oppose their advance, and they were assisted by a new race of people, named **Guptas**, who had sprung up in India, and who were probably the descendants of those Greeks and Bactrians that had fled into India when their country was conquered by the Indo-Scythians. The allied army was commanded by the celebrated **Vikramaditya**, **78 A.D.** king of **Ujjain**. A great battle was fought at **Kahror**. The Rajputs, aided by the Guptas, gained a complete victory. From this time the Indo-Scythians disappear from history.

CHAPTER VII.

PROGRESS OF BUDDHISM.

KINGDOM OF MAGADHA—THE MAURYAN DYNASTY.

35. Chandragupta.—315 B. C.—291 B. C.— The spread of Buddhism in India is closely connected with the growth of the kingdom of Magadha. The kingdom of Magadha was in existence as early as the times of the Mahabharata. Sahadeva was then king. Subsequently, as we have seen, it was conquered by the Takshaks, and on Nanda the Rich, the last of that dynasty, being murdered, Chandragupta seized Pataliputra and placed himself on the throne. He was the first of the Mauryan dynasty.

36. Asoka.—263 B. C.—223 B. C.—Neither Chandragupta nor his son were Buddhists, but the third of the race, Asoka, or as he called himself, Priyadasi openly professed the Buddhist faith, and at a council held at Patna under his presidency, he proclaimed Buddhism to be the *state religion.* Asoka was a zealous Buddhist. He founded monasteries and built hospitals at his own expense, and published laws or edicts throughout his empire calling on all his subjects to observe the Buddhist doctrines,—obedience to parents, kindness to children, mercy to inferior animals. Some of those edicts are still to be seen engraven on pillars and rocks throughout the country, and the great distances they are from one another show us how extensive the kingdom of Magadha was under Asoka. There are such pillars at Delhi, and Allahabad; and rocks, near Peshawar, in Gujarat, in Orissa, and on the road between Delhi and Jaipur. Asoka in his edicts claims to rule also over South India and Ceylon. Not content with spreading the Buddhist faith in his own kingdom, Asoka sent missionaries into more distant parts of India,—to Chola, Pandya, Kerala, and Kashmir,—and to other countries, as Bactria, Siam, and China. He sent his brother and sister to Ceylon. By them the king of Ceylon was converted, and in this way Buddhism was established in that island.

37. Asoka's successors.—Asoka's successors were also Buddhists. Under them the kingdom of Magadha rose to a very high position. They constructed a royal road from Pataliputra to the Indus and another across the desert of Sindh to **Broach**, at that time the most commercial city on the west coast. They encouraged learning with the greatest liberality, and sought to extend education by means of the vernacular languages. The Mauryan dynasty ended in the year 195 B.C. By that time Buddhism had become the prevailing religion in India. **195 B.C.**

38. The Sanga Rajas.—194 B.C.-86 B.C.—The Mauryan dynasty was succeeded by the Sanga Rajas. They too were Buddhists, and it was probably during their rule that the many rock-cut cave temples and monasteries found in India, as at Katak, Kach and Adjanta, were fashioned. The monasteries were called *Viharas*. Hence the name Bihar, so called, from the great number of monasteries that were built in that province.

CHAPTER VIII.

DECLINE OF BUDDHISM.

86 B.C.—1100 A.D.

39. Towards the end of the century preceding the Christian era Buddhism had not so many followers as during the rule of the later kings of the Mauryan dynasty. What was it that led to the decline of Buddhism, and to the revival of Hinduism? There is a Hindu legend with reference to this question.

40. The Agnikulas.—The Brahmans had found out they had made a mistake in destroying the Kshatriyas that had fought for them and established them in the land. New enemies to their faith had arisen in the Buddhists, and from these they had now no power to free themselves. The holy sages that dwelt at the summit of Mount Abu, accordingly, carried their complaints to the sea of curds

on which Brahma, the Creator, was floating on the back of a hydra. Brahma commanded them to recreate the Kshatriya race that had been destroyed by **Parasu Rama**. They returned and purified the "fountain of fire" with water taken from the Ganges, and then up sprang four warriors called the **Agnikulas** or "generation of fire" who drove the Buddhists out of the land and re-established the Brahmanic faith. Such is the story of what led to the overthrow of Buddhism. It is of course a fable. But it shows that at this period there must have been a great struggle between the followers of the Brahmans and the followers of Buddha, and that many lives were lost in the contest.

41. Chinese Pilgrims.—We have no information with reference to this struggle during the first four centuries of the Christian era. But the Chinese to whom Asoka had sent Buddhist Missionaries, and who in large numbers had embraced the Buddhist faith, in their turn sent pilgrims to India to collect and take back to China copies of the Buddhist Scriptures. From those pilgrims we learn the extent to which Buddhism was followed in the fifth and seventh centuries after Christ.

400 A.D. The first of those pilgrims that arrived in India was **Fa Hian**. He found Buddhist monks and monasteries in all the towns he passed through on his way from **Kabul** to **Pataliputra**; but Brahman priests and Hindu temples were scarcely less numerous. Two centuries later, another pilgrim arrived

629 A.D. to 649 A.D. from China. His name was **Hiouen Thsang**. He found the great monastery at Peshwar deserted, but the people there were still mostly Buddhists. **Kapila-vastu was in ruins**, and even in Benares there were only four monasteries to one hundred Brahmanist temples. In **Magadha**, Buddhism was still flourishing, but in a very corrupt form, for of the people at one place Hiouen Thsang visited, he says: they were no better than the "heretics," *i. e.*, the Brahmans among whom they lived.

42. Extinction of Buddhism.—From this it appears that Buddhism had greatly fallen from the position it held in a Fa Hian's time. The corruptions that crept into it hastened its downfall. A fierce persecution of the

Buddhists afterwards took place. The result was, that in the eleventh century after the birth of Christ the only kings of India that supported the religion of Buddha were the kings of Kashmir and Orissa. In the twelfth century, the Muhammadans entered India and conquered Kashmir, and from that time no Buddhists were left in the country except those of the Jain sect.

CHAPTER IX.

REVIVAL OF BRAHMANISM.—THE JAINS.

600 A.D.—800 A.D.

43. Brahmanic revival.—The long struggle between Brahmanism and Buddhism thus ended in the complete triumph of the former, and in the extinction of the latter in India. In the struggle, and to be successful in the struggle, much of the old Brahmanic faith was given up, and many of the Buddhist doctrines were embodied in the new religion. Animal sacrifices were abolished. Popular interest and sympathy for the new religion was secured by an exciting ceremonial. The old *triad* of the early Aryans was revived in the *tri-murti*, Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva. The heroes of the Ramayana and the Mahabharata were declared to be descended through the Brahmans from the sun and the moon, and were made objects of worship. Vishnu, the most popular god of the tri-murti, was said to have appeared in the flesh. Rama and Krishna were accepted as *avatars, i.e.*, incarnations of Vishnu.

44. The Jains.—On the fall of Buddhism, the Jain faith for a short period had a large number of followers. The Jains occupy a middle position between Brahmans and Buddhists. They retain the caste system and acknowledge the gods of the Brahmans, but they deny the divine authority of the Vedas. They are tender to an extraordinary degree of animal life. They worship certain saints, whom they call Tirtankaras, and they regard these as

higher than the gods. The Jains are divided into two sects—Digambaras, blue robed, and Swetambaras, white robed. They are met with now only in small numbers in Gujarat, Mhairwara and Maisur.

CHAPTER X.

EARLY HINDU KINGDOMS.

45. The Andra dynasty.—The Andra was the greatest of all the Rajput dynasties. A branch of this family reigned over Magadha from 31 B.C. to 436 A.D. Other branches ruled at Warangal in Telingana, and at Ujjain in Malwa.

46. Malwa.—Vikramaditya.—The greatest of the Andra line of kings was Vikramaditya. He was a descendant of the Agnikula chieftains, and was Raja of Ujjain. He led the combined armies of the Rajputs and Guptas against the Scythians, and utterly defeating them in the battle of Kahror, secured independence
78 A.D. for his country. He established the Brahmanic faith, invited learned Brahmans to his kingdom from all parts of India, and rewarded them with rich presents. To perpetuate his name, an era was begun from his reign, and this era is still current
56 A.D. throughout all the countries north of the Narbada.* King Bhoja and other successors of Vikramaditya extended their power over a great part of Central India. Malwa was finally subdued by the Muhammadans in 1231 A.D.

47. Kanouj.—Of all the ancient Hindu kingdoms, no one has attracted more notice than Kanouj. Panchala was its ancient name. Its sovereigns for some time were Guptas, and they extended the kingdom as far as Orissa. At the close of the eleventh century, Kanouj was under a Rajput Raja, who claimed to be head of all the Rajputs. He quarrelled with the Raja of Delhi, and invited Muham-

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* It is impossible that the Vikramaditya from whose reign the era begins could be the same king as he who fought the battle of Kahror. The probability is that there were several kings of this name.

mad Ghori to lead an army against that city. He suffered for his treachery; for the Muhammadans, after capturing Delhi, attacked Kanouj itself. The Raja was defeated and slain, and his capital plundered (para. 65). The Rajput princes fled into Rajputana, or Rajasthan, "the land of the Rajputs or Rajas," and there founded the dynasty of Jodhpur, which is still in existence. There were other kingdoms in India at this early period, such as Gujarat, Krishna's Kingdom,—but it is not necessary that mention should be made of them here. 1094 A.D.

CHAPTER XI.

EARLY HISTORY OF THE DECCAN.

48. Early inhabitants.—The early inhabitants of the Deccan are spoken of as mountaineers and foresters, or goblins and demons; but the fact, that the Tamil language was formed and perfected before the introduction of Sanskrit into this part of the country, shows that they possessed a high degree of civilization before the Hindu colonists settled in their midst. The most ancient kingdoms in the Deccan were **Pandya** and **Chola.**

49. Kingdom of Pandya.—Pandya was named after its founder, *Pandian*, and occupied the districts of **Madura** and **Tinnevelly**; **Madura** was the seat of the Government. The wars of the Pandyan kings were chiefly with the kings of Chola.

50. Kingdom of Chola.—**Chola** was of greater extent than Pandya. It embraced all the *Tamil* country, and, about the eighth century, its kings ruled over a part of **Telingana. Kanchi** (Conjeveram) was the capital. The last king was overthrown by **Vencaji**, brother of the famous **Sivaji.** He was the founder of the present **Tanjore** family.

51. Other states.—Many other states existed at different periods. **Chera** (Travancore and Coimbatore) which was overthrown in the tenth century; **Telingana**, the capital of which was Warangal; **Kerala** (Malabar and

Canara), peopled by Brahmans at the beginning of the Christian era, and under their rule till the ninth century, when the people revolted against their prince, who had become a Muhammadan, and the kingdom was broken up into many petty states, the chief of which was under the Zamorin of Calicut.

52. Salivahana.—One of the most noted of the Deccan kings was Salivahana. He is said to have been the son of a potter, and afterwards to have ruled at Patna on the Godavari. An era was named after him which is still in use in the Deccan.

78 A.D.

Leading Dates of the Hindu Period.

Scythian (Takshak) invasion . .	6th century B.C.
Invasion of Darius Hystaspes . .	521-518 B.C.
Death of Buddha	477 "
Invasion of Alexander the Great .	327-325 "
Battle of the Jhelum . . .	327 "
The Mauryan Dynasty . . .	315-195 "
Chandragupta	315-291 "
Asoka	263-223 "
Era of Vikramaditya	56 "
Battle of Kahror	78 A.D.
Era of Saliyahana	78 "
Hiouen Thsang visits India . .	629-648 "

EARLY MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

THE HOUSE OF GHAZNI.

965 A.D.—1184 A.D.

53. The first Muhammadan invasion.—711 A.D.—The first Muhammadans that invaded India were of **Arab** descent. They have already subdued Persia and taken possession of Afghanistan. Sindh for a time was conquered and became tributary to them, but only for a time. In 750 A.D. the Hindus succeeded in driving those Musalman Arabs out of the country, and in recovering their lost territory. India was not again disturbed by the Muhammadans for more than two hundred years.

54. Sabaktigin.—975 A.D.—996 A.D.—The next Muhammadan invaders were **Turks** from Turkestan. A Turki slave, named Sabaktigin, had risen to great power and had set up a Government at Ghazni. Scarcely had he ascended the throne, when **Jeipal**, Raja of Lahor, advanced with an army against him; but the Hindus, interpreting a shower of wind and rain and thunder as an evil omen, forced their Raja to enter into a treaty, whereby he gave fifty elephants, and promised to pay a large sum of money to Sabaktigin. Jeipal, however, no sooner found himself safe in his own territory, than he refused to send the money; and calling in the aid of the other Hindu Rajas, he awaited the arrival of Sabaktigin, who advanced to the Indus to compel him to fulfil his promise. Jeipal and his allies were utterly defeated. The whole country as far as the Indus was taken possession of by Sabaktigin, and a governor was appointed over Peshawar.

55. Mahmud of Ghazni.—996 A.D.—1030 A.D.—On the death of Sabaktigin, his son, the celebrated Sultan Mahmud, ascended the throne. He is always known in history as **Mahmud of Ghazni**. **996 A.D.** Two motives seem to have influenced this man in life,—(1) the glory to be obtained by establishing

the Muhammadan faith in new countries, and (2) the desire of amassing immense wealth. For the accomplishment of this double object, he *twelve* times invaded India.

56. The first invasion.—The first invasion was directed against Jeipal of Lahor. The opposing
1001 A.D. armies met near Peshawar. Jeipal, having been defeated, resigned the throne in favour of his son Anangpal, and ascended the funeral pile. In the *fourth* expedition several Hindu Rajas united their forces to oppose Mahmud, but in a battle fought
1008 A.D. near Peshawar (the second battle of Peshawar), and the army of Mahmud was again successful, Mahmud followed up his victory by plundering the rich temple of Nagarkot.

57. The ninth invasion.—The ninth expedition was on a much larger scale. Collecting an army of one hundred thousand horse and twenty thousand foot, Mahmud resolved to penetrate into the heart of Hindustan. He set out from Peshawar, and, keeping close to the mountains, crossed the Jumna and arrived suddenly at the magnificent and wealthy city of Kanouj. The Raja, taken by surprise and unable to offer resistance, at once
1019 A.D. surrendered and secured the friendship of the conqueror. Mahmud next attacked Muttra. After he had plundered that city, broken the idols and profaned the temples, he returned to Ghazni laden with treasure.

58. The tenth invasion.—The *tenth* expedition was directed against Jeipal II, son of Anangpal.
1022 A.D. He had opposed Mahmud on his march to Kanouj. His kingdom was now taken from him, and Lahor annexed to Ghazni. This was the first instance of the Muhammadans establishing themselves permanently east of the Indus, and the date is important, as marking the foundation of the Muhammadan empire in India.

59. The twelfth invasion.—The *twelfth* and most celebrated expedition was against Somnath.
1024 A.D. The temple of Somnath, situated in Gujarat, was the richest, most frequented, most famous place of worship in all India. To reach Somnath,

Mahmud had to cross a desert three hundred and fifty miles broad. With twenty thousand camels and an immense army he left Ghazni, and through many difficulties pushed on till he reached the fated city. The Hindus offered a determined resistance to the invaders. Again and again the Muhammadans were driven back from the walls, but at length with a shout and a furious charge they rushed in, and temple and gods fell into their hands. Mahmud entered the temple. The Brahmans offered him large sums of money not to destroy the idol. But Mahmud had no greater ambition than to be handed down in history as a "breaker of idols." The idol, a cylinder five yards high, was smashed to pieces, and then it is said that it was discovered that it was filled with jewels. Mahmud retired to Ghazni the following year and died there at the age of sixty-three years. Before his death, he is said to have ordered all his riches to be laid out before him, and to have wept that he was so soon to leave them. 1030 A.D.

60. Mahmud's character.—Mahmud was the most distinguished warrior of his time. He had all the elements of greatness—prudence, activity, courage to the very highest degree. His success in arms gained for him the highest military reputation, while the good order that prevailed in his kingdom, notwithstanding his frequent absence from it, proves that he had great talents for government. The founding the University of Ghazni, and the large sums of money he gave to learned men, mark him out as one of the most liberal supporters of literature and arts of any age.

61. On the death of Mahmud dissensions broke out in the state. The country continued to be more or less in a state of civil war for the next century and a half. At last another family came in, captured Lahor and took possession of the kingdom of Ghazni.

CHAPTER II.

HOUSE OF GHORI.—MUHAMMADAN AFGHANS CONQUER HINDUSTAN.

1184 A.D.—1206 A.D.

62. The country that gave birth to the family that overthrew the house of Ghazni was likewise situated in Afghanistan. It was called **Ghor**, from a fort of that name between Ghazni and Herat. The most celebrated of the family was Shahab-ud-din, better known as Muhammad Ghori.

63. Muhammad Ghori.—1184 A.D.—1206 A.D.—On the capture of Lahor and the fall of the house of Ghazni, Muhammad Ghori had no rivals left. But he was not content with this. He resolved to follow the example of the great Mahmud of Ghazni, and add to his power and wealth by invading, and, if possible, conquering Hindustan. Muhammad Ghori invaded India for the first time in 1189. He was met in battle by **Prithvi**, Raja of Delhi and Ajmir, near **Thaneswar**, where so many battles were afterwards to be fought, and was so completely defeated, that it was with difficulty he made good

1191 A.D. his escape across the Indus with the wreck of his army. But this defeat only made Muhammad Ghori the more resolved to accomplish his great object, the conquest of Hindustan. Enraged at the cowardice his nobles had shown in this battle, Muhammad thought that by publicly disgracing them he would make them braver in the future. His punishment was a novel one. He ordered bags of barley to be tied round their necks; and sent them through the streets of Ghazni, compelling them to eat after the manner of donkeys as they went along. They were afterwards restored to favour, and another opportunity was given them of recovering their character.

64. Delhi taken.—Two years later **Muhammad** Ghori again appeared at the head of a large army.

1193 A.D. Prithvi Raja once more advanced against him. The opposing armies once more met at Thaneswar; but with a very different result. The Hindus

were utterly routed. Prithvi Raja and many other chiefs were taken and slain, and the Muhammadan power was firmly established in India. Muhammad Ghori returned to Ghazni enriched with spoil, leaving **Kutb-ud-din,** who had once been a slave, as viceroy. Kutb-ud-din followed up his master's victories by taking **Delhi,** which became the seat of the Government.

65. Hindustan conquered.—Next year Muhammad returned and advanced on **Kanouj. Jaikand,** the Raja, had held back while Prithvi and others were fighting for their independence. He had now cause to repent his folly. His army was routed at **Chadrawar,** and he himself slain. The defeat of the Raja of Kanouj 1194 A.D. opened up the way for the conquest of Bihar and Bengal. Within two years the holy land of **Magadha** was over-run by Muhammad Ghori's generals, and the city of **Bihar** was plundered. **Bengal** some years later submitted without a struggle. Hindu temples were plundered and destroyed all along 1203 A.D. the valleys of the Jumna and the Ganges, and mosques, palaces and caravansaries were built with the materials. When on an expedition to **Khorasan,** Muhammad Ghori was murdered, while asleep in his tent, by a band of Gakkars, a wild tribe living in the mountains north of the Punjab. Within a period of little more than ten years, he had subdued the whole of Hindustan, with the exception of **Malwa,** and 1206 A.D. established a permanent Muhammadan Government in India.

66. Rajputana.—It was at this time the Rajput princes, driven from their kingdoms, retired with their followers into that region lying between the Indus and the Chambal south and west of the Jumna, and which is known as **Rajputana,** or **Rajasthan,** the land of the Rajputs or **Rajas.**

CHAPTER III.

THE SLAVE KINGS.

1206 A.D.—1290 A.D.

67. Kutb-ud-din.—1206 A.D.-1210 A.D.—As Muhammad Ghori left no sons, the kingdom was soon broken up into separate states. **Kutb-ud-din**, the slave whom he had made viceroy (hence the name, Slave Kings), set up his throne at Delhi, and formed Delhi into an independent kingdom. Kutb-ud-din is, therefore, regarded as the *first* of the line of Muhammadan emperors that reigned there, and the date, 1206, should be remembered. Kutb-ud-din died after a reign of four years, during which he gained the reputation of being a virtuous and just ruler.

68. Altamsh.—1210 A.D.-1236 A.D.—Altamsh was the greatest of the Slave Kings. It was in his reign that Chenghis Khan, with his Tartar hordes, burst on the Muhammadan kingdoms west of the Indus, and laid waste all the country as far as the Caspian Sea. These Tartars or **Mughals**, that were again and again to be the scourge of Europe and Asia, are described "as ugly nomads with yellow complexions, high cheek bones, flat noses, small eyes and large mouths. They were covered with vermin, and their smell was detestable. They plundered towns and villages, and carried off women and children to serve as slaves." Altamsh captured Gwalior, which had revolted, took Ujjain, and destroyed its celebrated temples erected by Vikramaditya twelve hundred years before; and annexed **Malwa** to the throne of Delhi. In this reign the Kutb Minar was finished near Delhi. It was so named after Kutb-ud-din, a celebrated Muhammadan saint. It is in the form of a minaret, 242 feet high, and is generally believed to be the highest column standing alone in the world. Altamsh died in 1236. His worthless son was deposed after a reign of seven months, and **Rezia**, sister of the deposed king, raised to the throne with the title of Sultan.

69. Sultan Rezia.-1236A.D.-1239A.D.—Rezia was a woman of great business talents, and for a time she ruled well, introducing many reforms into the government

of the kingdom. She showed too much favour, however, to one of her slaves. This made the nobles angry, and they rose against her and took her prisoner. She was given in charge to the leader of the conspiracy and he afterwards married her. But in a subsequent attempt to regain the throne, Rezia was again taken prisoner and put to death along with her husband. The two following reigns occupy six years, after which Nazir-ud-din, grandson of Altamsh, who had been long kept in confinement, ascended the throne.

70. Nazir-ud-din.—1245 A.D.—1266 A.D.—Nazir-ud-din selected as his prime-minister, Ghias-ud-din Balban, a Turki slave, who proved himself to be one of the ablest statesmen of the time. The private life of Nazir-ud-din was that of a hermit. His personal expenses were met from the sale of books, which he copied with his own hands. His meals were prepared by his wife, and though she complained that she burnt her fingers in cooking, he refused to allow her a servant. He was a great patron of Persian literature.

71. Balban.—1266 A.D.—1287 A.D.—On the death of Nazir-ud-din, Balban, who was already in possession of all the powers of king, ascended the throne. **1266 A.D.** In an expedition against Mewat, Balban put a great number of persons to death. Though very cruel, he was otherwise a liberal and enlightened monarch. Many of the princes of those kingdoms west of the Indus, whose territories had been over-run by the Mughals, fled to his Court, and were received and entertained by him. At one time he had as many as fifteen princes depending on his bounty. Following those princes came many learned men, and they too had a ready welcome given them. The Mughals having crossed the Indus, Prince Muhammad, Balban's son, was sent with an army against them. He gained a complete victory, but was himself slain. Balban, who was now in his eightieth year, was so affected by the news of his son's death, that he is said to have died of a broken heart. A contest for the chief power in the State immediately took place between the different parties at Delhi, which ended in one Jalal-ud-din, chief of the family of Khilji, taking possession of the throne.

CHAPTER IV.

THE HOUSE OF KHILJI.

1290 A.D.—1320 A.D.

72. The Khiljis.—The Khiljis were a Tartar family that had settled in Afghanistan. From an early time they were so closely connected with the inhabitants of that country that they afterwards came to be regarded as Afghans or Pathans.

73. Jalal-ud-din.—1290 A.D.-1295. A.D.—Jalal-ud-din was seventy years of age when he began to reign. He was a weak king, and during his rule crime increased throughout the country. His reign, however, is a memorable one, for in it took place the first of those expeditions by which the Deccan was finally rendered subject to the Muhammadan arms.

74. First invasion of the Deccan.—Ala-ud-din, nephew of Jalal-ud-din, was the first Muhamma-

1294 A.D. dan that invaded the Deccan. He was a man of great vigour and ability, but he was very unscrupulous. At the head of eighty thousand men, he marched south and suddenly appeared before the walls of Deogiri (now called Daulatabad), the capital of Ramdeo, Rajah of Maharashtra. The Rajah was quite unprepared to meet so sudden an attack, and Ala-ud-din having given out that his force was only the advance guard of a mighty army led by the king in person, Ramdeo was glad to make peace by paying a large tribute. Ala-ud-din returned to Hindustan laden with money and jewels. When Jalal-ud-din heard of the success of Ala-ud-din, he went to meet him, to receive the plunder. His nephew induced him to come and visit him alone, and while the old man was clasping Ala-ud-din's hand, and speaking words of love and tenderness to him, he was stabbed by assassins who had been concealed for the purpose.

75. Ala-ud-din.—1295 A.D.-1315 A.D.—Ala-ud-din advanced to Delhi and ascended the throne. His

government was very different from that of his predecessor. A man of strong will and great energy, he quickly put down the rebellions that broke out in the early part of his reign. He led his army against Gujarat, and subdued it. Again and again he encountered the Mughals, who on one occasion advanced as far as Delhi. 1297 A.D.

76. Rajputana invaded.—Ala-ud-din next turned his attention to Rajputana. He had already almost gone round it. He had passed its eastern border on his way to Deogiri. He had subdued the land west of it when he conquered Gujarat. On the north he had more than once driven back the Mughals. But into the centre of Rajputana he had not yet ventured. He now resolved to do so. To this land the Rajput princes had retired on the overthrow of their kingdoms by Muhammad Ghori, and at this time the Rajah of Chitor was the head of all the Rajput princes, as at the present day his descendant, the Rana of Udaipur, is the head of the Hindus. Chitor was in the centre of Rajputana. Thither Ala-ud-din led his troops; but he met with a resistance such as he had not experienced from the weaker Hindus of the south, and which, from the self-devotion of the Rajputs, has rendered the siege of Chitor remarkable in history. When the Rajputs could no longer defend themselves, the queen and the ladies of rank, rather than be exposed to the violence of the invaders, mounted the funeral pile (performing the terrible rite known as johur). This ended, the men, rushing out sword in hand against the enemy, perished almost to a man. The few that escaped fled to the Aravali Hills. 1303 A.D.

77. Maharashtra subdued.—These disturbances in Hindustan had prevented Ala-ud-din from making further incursions into the Deccan. But in 1306 an army was assembled under Malik Kafur, a slave, who had risen into great favour with his master. With this army Malik Kafur overran the Mahratta country, took Deogiri and forced the Raja to yield submission to the throne of Delhi. In this expedition a daughter of the Raja of Gujarat was captured and taken to Delhi. There she was married to Khizr Khan, the King's 1306 A.D.

eldest son—an interesting fact, as showing that even at this early time *intermarriages* took place between the Muhammadans and the Hindus.

78. South India overrun.—Three years later, Malik Kafur led an expedition into Telingana and

1309 A.D. TO 1311 A.D. captured Warangal. **Karnata** was next overrun, and **Dwara Samudra**, the capital of the Bellal Rajas, taken. Onward still the invaders advanced, till they reached **Ramesvaram**, where Kafur erected a mosque in memory of his victories. He then returned to Delhi.

79. Death of Ala-ud-din.—By this time, Ala-ud-din had fallen into ill-health. Rebellions soon broke out in different parts of his kingdom. Gujarat revolted. Chitor recovered its independence. Insurrections arose in the Deccan. While matters stood thus, the king died; it is supposed, was poisoned. The unprincipled Kafur immediately put out the eyes of the two eldest sons of the dead king, and tried to murder the third. But he was himself soon to meet with a violent end. Within thirty-five days after he had seized the government, he fell by the hands of an assassin.

80. Mubarak.—1316 A.D.—1320 A.D.—**Mubarak**, the third son of Ala-ud-din, was then placed on the throne. He was a very cruel and wicked man, and trusted a great deal to a favourite slave, named **Khusrau Khan**, who in the end murdered his master and seized the throne.

81. Khusrau Khan.—This Khusrau Khan was a Hindu of the lowest caste, and had become a Muhammadan. Though he was proclaimed Sultan under a Muhammadan name, he still seems to have favoured the

1320 A.D. Hindus. Had he been a man of high caste, and been able to gather around him the Hindu chiefs, the Muhammadan power might have been in danger. But the Hindu nobles would not join him, and when **Ghazi Khan Taghlak**, Governor of the Punjab, marched on Delhi, he soon overthrew the power of Khusrau, put him to death, and ascended the throne under the title of **Ghias-ud-din**, the first of the Taghlak dynasty.

CHAPTER V.

TAGHLAK DYNASTY.

1320 A.D.—1414 A.D.

82. Ghias-ud-din Taghlak Shah.—1320 A.D.-1325 A.D.—Ghias-ud-din Taghlak set up his court at **Taghlakabad**, a strong fort a few miles from the modern Delhi. The four years during which he occupied the throne were spent by him in restoring order throughout the country. On his return from Bengal, whither he had gone to settle disturbances that had arisen in that province, his son, **Ulugh Khan**, whom he had left as Viceroy during his absence, received him most royally in a wooden palace erected for the occasion. But whether by accident or design, most probably the latter, no sooner had Ulugh Khan retired from the building than it fell, and both his father and younger brother perished.

83. Muhammad Bin Taghlak.—1325 A.D.-1351 A.D.—Ulugh Khan ascended the throne under the title of **Muhammad Bin Taghlak**. The character of this man was a compound of the highest virtues and the grossest and most horrible vices. He is admitted to have been the most eloquent and accomplished prince of his time; yet, with all his talents and accomplishments, "so little did he hesitate to shed the blood of God's creatures, that when he took vengeance, it seemed as if he wished to exterminate the human family." Muhammad Taghlak put down the revolts that had burst out in the Deccan, and next formed the mad project of conquering the world. An army of one hundred thousand men was sent through the passes of the Himalayas against China, but only a few returned to tell of their defeat and sufferings, and even those few were put to death by the cruel order of the king. The Mughals appeared again in India during this reign, but Muhammad Taghlak bought them off with the treasures carried to Delhi by Ala-ud-din.

84. Revolts.—The cost of the expedition to China and the large bribes he had given to the Mughals emptied

his treasury. The taxes on the people were increased to such an extent that, in despair, the poor left their occupations and took refuge in the jungles, where they lived by rapine. Muhammad Taghlak thought of a terrible mode of punishing those unfortunate people. Ordering out his army as if for a hunt, he surrounded a large extent of country, and then driving all the people within this circle towards the centre, commanded them to be slaughtered. Again and again this species of hunt was indulged in. Famine necessarily followed, and misery beyond description. In the midst of all this, Muhammad Taghlak resolved to remove his capital to Deogiri. All the inhabitants of Delhi were ordered to proceed thither. It was a long journey. Deogiri lay more than seven hundred miles away. The unfortunate people had to cross mountains, ford rivers, and pass through jungles on their way thither. Worn out with fatigue and famine they died off in thousands, and the few that arrived at Deogiri were reduced to such misery, that at last Muhammad allowed the survivors to return to their old homes. Revolts burst out in different parts of the empire. Bengal took up arms and gained its independence. The

1340 A.D. country on the Coromandel coast followed in 1347 with similar success. Two independent states were established there, the Hindu kingdom of **Vijianagar** and the Muhammadan **Bahmini** kingdom. Muhammad Taghlak died at Tatta in 1351.

85. Firuz Shah.—1351 A.D.-1388 A.D.—Firuz Shah, nephew of the late king, succeeded. His reign was on the whole a peacefal one, and is best remembered in connection with the construction of public works. Chief among these was the canal between the Jumna and the Kaggar, two hundred miles of which have since been restored by the British Government.

86. Anarchy.—On the death of Firuz Shah, anarchy broke out anew, and the land was deluged with blood. While the country was in this state of confusion, the Mughals, under the command of **Timur** (Tamerlane), entered India. Timur marched onwards massacring the inhabitants as he advanced. On one occasion a very great many prisoners were put to death, as he found it incon-

venient to feed them. Delhi was captured and the inhabitants were put to the sword. But permanent conquest was not Timur's ambition. Plunder was all he cared for. When he took his departure from India, he left the country a prey to anarchy, famine and pestilence. 1399 A.D.

The last of the Taghlak dynasty died in 1412.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SAYYID AND LODI DYNASTIES.

1414 A.D.—1526 A.D.

87. Khizr Khan.—1414 A.D.—1421 A.D.—Khizr Khan, a descendant of the Prophet Muhammad and a native of India, was governor of Multan. In 1414 he assumed authority at Delhi and affected to reign in the name of Timur. As a descendant of Muhammad he was a Sayyid, and hence he is known as the first of the Sayyid dynasty. He was unable to subdue any of the states that had revolted. His successors were weak princes. The last of the Sayyid line gave up the kingdom to Buhlol Lodi, Governor of Lahor, who was the first of the Lodi dynasty.

88. The kingdom of Delhi.—In the earlier part of the reign of Muhammad Taghlak, the kingdom of Delhi extended as far as the Himalayas on the north, and from the Indus to the Bay of Bengal. It included all the Coromandel coast except Orissa as far west as a line roughly drawn from Bombay to Ramesvaram. At the end of the Sayyid dynasty, all that remained under the power of the emperor was the town of Delhi and a few miles of territory around it.

89. Buhlol Lodi.—1450 A.D.—1488 A.D.—Buhlol Lodi was a man of a different character from the later kings of the Sayyid dynasty. His great object was to extend his sovereignty and restore Delhi to something like its former pre-eminence. Jaunpur had become the rival of Delhi, and a struggle for supremacy was carried on between those two states for many years with varying success. Delhi finally proved the stronger. "The king

of the East," as the ruler of Jaunpur was called, was forced to flee into Bengal and his kingdom was annexed. On the death of Buhlol Lodi the kingdom of Delhi extended from the **Punjab** to **Bengal**.

90. Ibrahim.—Ibrahim, the last of the Lodi line, was a very cruel man, so much so, that the nobles rose against him, and one of them, **Daulat Lodi**, the Governor of the Punjab, having asked **Babar** and his Mughals to come to his assistance, they invaded Hindustan.
1526 A.D. The opposing armies met at **Panipat**, 1526. Ibrahim was defeated and slain. The *Afghan* rule in India for a time was at an end, and its place was taken by that of the *Mughals*.

CHAPTER VII.

HISTORY OF THE DECCAN DURING THE EARLY MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

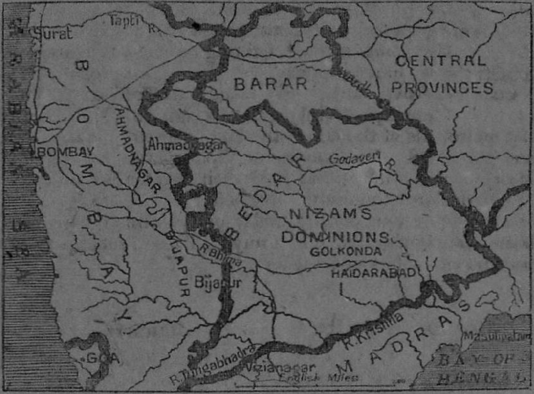
1530 A.D.—1565 A.D.

THE BAHMINI KINGDOM—VIJIANAGAR.

91. Early Afghan conquests.—At the time of the Muhammadan invasions, the Deccan and the Southern Peninsula were divided into several states. Ramdeo, the first Mahratta prince we read of, was ruling at Deogiri; the Andra dynasty at Warangal, in Telingana; while farther south the Bellal Rajas carried on their government at Dwara Samudra in Mysore. We have seen how Ala-ud-din Khilji suddenly presented himself before Deogiri, and compelled Ramdeo to pay him tribute; how Malik Kafur, during the same reign, overthrew the Bellal Rajas and took their capital; how he compelled Warangal to become tributary; and how, when Muhammad Taghlak ascended the throne, almost all southern India was under the Muhammadan power. From the reign of Muhammad Taghlak, two very powerful states date their origin;—the one, the Hindu kingdom of Vijianagar—the other, the Muhammadan Bahmini kingdom.

92. The Bahmini Kingdom.—The founder of this kingdom was **Najar Khan**, an Afghan, the slave of a Brahman named Gangu. Heading some rebels, he set up a separate independent kingdom at **Kalbarga**, and assumed the title of **Sultan Ala-ud-din Hasan Gangu Bahmini.** The Bahmini kingdom lasted for more than one hundred years, when it was broken up, and five

1347 A.D. to 1526 A.D.



separate kingdoms with independent Sultans were formed. These were **Bedar** in the centre, **Barar** and **Ahmadnagar** in the north, and **Bijapur** and **Golkonda** in the south.

93. Rise of Vijianagar.—When Warangal was captured by the Muhammadans many of the Hindus fled from the place, and founded a town on the Tungabhadra, and called it **Vijianagar.** The city during the next century grew to such an extent that it was twenty-four miles in circumference, and its ruins are still of great interest. On the breaking up of the Bahmini kingdom each of

1336 A.D. to 1565 A.D.

the separate states into which it was divided was comparatively weak, and, to make things worse, the Sultans fought amongst themselves and Vijianagar was sometimes called in to assist the one side against the other. The result was, that while the Muhammadan states thereby became weaker and weaker, the power of Vijianagar geatly increased.

94. Fall of Vijianagar.—After a time the Sultans came to see how foolish they were. They found that if they were to be a permanent power in southern India, they must give up fighting amongst themselves and unite against the Hindu kingdom. The decisive battle was fought at **Talikota.** The Maharaja of Vijianagar was slain, and Vijianagar, the metropolis of the last of the Hindu empires, was taken and plundered. The empire of Vijianagar fell to pieces. Many of the princes that held their estates on military tenure declared themselves independent, and many petty Hindu states were set up under petty princes who had been commanders in the army. These subsequently became zemindars or poligars.

1565 A.D.

Leading Dates of the Early Muhammadan Period.

	A.D.
Sindh conquered by the Arabs	711
Sindh recovered by the Rajputs	750
Sabaktigin, founder of the House of Ghazni	975
Mahmud of Ghazni	996-1030
Mahmud's first expedition into India	1001
Lahor annexed to Ghazni	1022
Somnath plundered	1024
First battle of Thaneswar	1191
Second battle of Thaneswar	1193
Bengal subdued by Muhammad Ghori	1203
Sultan Rezia	1236-1239
First Invasion of the Deccan	1294
Ala-ud-din attacks Rajputana	1303
The south of the Peninsula conquered	1309-1311
Timur invades India	1399
First battle of Panipat	1526
The Bahmini kingdom	1347-1526
Kingdom of Vijianagar	1336-1565
Battle of Talikota	1565

THE PORTUGUESE IN INDIA.

95. Early Voyages.—While the peninsula was in this condition, the **Portuguese**, a people new to India, landed on the Malabar coast. For centuries all goods passing from India to Europe were conveyed by the Red Sea, through Egypt to Alexandria, and shipped thence to Venice or Genoa. The trade was entirely in the hands of Arab Muhammadans, who were known as Moors, and the **Sultan of Egypt** obtained a large revenue from the transit duties on the goods that passed through his country. The nations in the west of Europe saw that, if another route to India could be discovered, they might be enriched by trading with the east. Fleet after fleet was got ready for sea. The Spaniards sent a fleet under **Columbus**, who sailed west until he reached the islands of the **New World**, now known as the West Indies. Some years before **Bartholomew Diaz**, a Portuguese, had sailed with a small fleet round the south of **Africa**, and from the tempestuous weather he had experienced, had called the most southern part of that continent, the "Cape of Storms." But the king of Portugal, considering this discovery hopeful of his finding a passage to India by that route, gave it the name of the **Cape of Good Hope**, the name by which it is still known. Ten years passed before the Portuguese took advantage of the discovery they had made In July 1497 a fleet of three ships, under the command of **Vasco de Gama**, left Lisbon, and having sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, anchored off **Calicut** on the 28th May 1498, sixty-seven years before of **Talikota.**

1492 A.D.

1487 A.D.

1497 A.D.

96. The Nayars.—The people on the western coast were very different from those living on the plateau of the Deccan. They were a dark-complexioned race, and to a greater or less degree were under the Brahmans. They were called **Nayars**. Their country was distributed among twelve petty Rajas, known as the *twelve kings* of **Malabar**, and these held their land from the **Zamorin** of **Calicut**, who was head over all.

97. Vasco de Gama—1498 A.D.—1499 A.D.—To the Zamorin of Calicut Vasco de Gama sent a message, announcing his arrival as an ambassador from the king of Portugal. The Zamorin at first received him very favourably; but the Moors, seeing that the trade which they had so long enjoyed might be taken away from them, if the Portuguese were to get a footing in the land, told the Zamorin that Vasco de Gama was not an ambassador from a king, but a pirate chief, who, having with his crew been driven out of European seas, had come into Asia to carry on his depredations there. The Zamorin accordingly seized some of Vasco de Gama's men and cast them into prison. Vasco de Gama in return seized several **1499 A.D.** Nayars, and retained them as prisoners till his own men were set free. When this was done, Vasco de Gama returned to Portugal.

98. Alphonso Albuquerque—1508 A.D. 1519 A.D.—The success of Vasco de Gama inspired the Portuguese with the utmost enthusiasm. No time was lost in getting ready another fleet, and **Alvarez Cabral**, a distinguished admiral, was appointed to the command. The fleet arrived off Calicut, but the Zamorin treated Cabral and his crew worse than he had treated Vasco de Gama. They then went to Cochin, where they received a hearty welcome, and were allowed to erect a fort. Other expeditions followed. The real founder of the Portuguese supremacy in the east was **Alphonso Albuquerque**, who was appointed Viceroy. He captured Goa 1510, and thereby secured a station for his fleet and a centre from which he could extend his conquests. Within a few years he established the Portuguese supremacy on the seas from **Ormaz** in the Persian Gulf in the **Moluccas**. In 1515 Albuquerque was deprived of his office by his ungrateful

sovereign and died when approaching Goa. Before his death the Portuguese conquests had reached their greatest limits, and few events of importance mark the after history of that people in the east. The only places in India now belonging to Portugal are Goa, Diu and Daman. 1519 A.D.

Leading Dates.

	A.D.
Bartholomew Diaz doubles the Cape of Good Hope	1487
Vasco de Gama arrives at Calicut	1498
Albuquerque takes Goa	1510
Death of Albuquerque	1519

RISE OF THE MUGHAL EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

1526 A.D.—1540 A.D.

99. Babar—1526 A. D.—1530 A. D.—Babar, the founder of the Mughal Empire in India, was a lineal descendant of Timur and Chenghiz Khan. He was born in 1482. On the death of his father, Babar, then only twelve years of age, inherited the kingdom of Khokan. He subsequently took Kabul and founded a kingdom in Afghanistan. For years Bâbar kept his eyes fixed steadily on India, watching for an opportunity to pounce upon it and make it his prey. A fitting time at length came. In 1525 a feeble monarch sat on the throne of Delhi. Daulat Lodi, the governor of the Punjab, rose in rebellion and asked Babar to come to his assistance. The invitation was accepted, and by the victory at Panipat Babar came into possession of Delhi.

100. Babar's conquests.—The Rana of Chitor, Sanga by name, assisted by his vassal lords of Jodhpur, Jaipur and others, resolved to try to drive Babar and his Mughals out of India. The opposing armies met
1526 A.D. at Sikri, near Agra, and Babar gained a complete victory. In the following year Chanderi was stormed, and the Rajputs were slain in great numbers. The Mughal empire was thus established in India, and the Rajputs from that day have never again attempted to conquer Hindustan. While Babar was thus subduing the Hindus, his son, Humayun, was no less busy against the Afghan princes. Within a few months the whole country as far as Jaunpur was reduced. Bengal and Bihar were next attacked, and they submit-
1530 A.D. ted to the conqueror. Thus within four years Babar was enabled to bring the whole of Hindustan, with the exception of Gujarat, under the Mughal power.

101. Character of Babar.—The character of Babar is made known in his *Memoirs*, which were written by

himself. He was a man of the most daring spirit, and had the greatest physical endurance. On one occasion he is said to have ridden a hundred and sixty miles in two days, and thereafter to have swum across the Ganges. He was fond of gay companions, and in adversity was never dispirited. In the midst of his wars, he found time to write Persian poetry which has been admired for its elegance. His death was remarkable. Humayun was sick, and Babar prayed that the sickness might be transferred to himself. Strange to say, as Humayun recovered, Babar sickened and died (1530).

102. Humayun—1530 A. D.—1540 A. D.—Humayun turned his arms against Gujarat. Bahadur Shah was then reigning. He was the most powerful monarch that ever ruled over that country. Bahadur Shah was defeated, the fortress of **Champanir**, which contained his treasury, was captured, and Gujarat was taken from him; but in the following year he recovered his throne. Bahadur Shah was afterwards killed in an affray with the Portuguese at Diu.

103. Sher Shah.—A new and even more powerful enemy awaited Humayun on his return to Agra. Sher Shah, an Afghan of the Sur family, had taken possession of Bengal. Humayun advanced against him and captured the fort of **Chunar**, which commanded the line of communication between Bengal and Hindustan. **Gaur** next fell before him; but, the rains setting in, he was unable to advance further, and his soldiers died off from fever and dysentery. When the rains were over, Sher Shah issued from his hill fortress, whither he had carried his treasure, and coming up with Humayun at **Baxar** defeated him. The Emperor plunged into the river, **1539 A.D.** reached the other side, and arrived at Delhi with only a few followers. Assembling an army, Humayun met Sher Shah at **Kanouj** and was again defeated. He then fled to **Lahor**, thence through the desert of Sindh to Amarkot, where he arrived accompanied by only *seven followers*. **At Amarkot his son Akbar was born.** From Amarkot Humayun proceeded to Persia, and was joined there by his General, **Bairam Khan**.

CHAPTER II.

AFGHAN POWER RESTORED—SUR DYNASTY—HUMAYUN RETURNS.

1540 A.D.—1555 A.D.

104. Sher Shah—1540 A.D.—1545 A.D.—On the defeat of Humayun at Kanouj, Sher Shah advanced to Delhi and ascended the throne. Sher Shah ruled for five years, and during that time so laboured for the good of the country, that his reign is one of the brightest periods in Indian history. He introduced the most salutary reforms into almost every part of the civil administration, and constructed a *grand trunk road* some two thousand miles in length, from the **Indus** to **Bengal**, with caravansaries at short stages, and wells at intervals of a mile and a half. He built mosques for the use of the Muhammadans, and he is said to have been the first to introduce mounted postal messengers for the conveyance of the mails. He was killed by the explosion of a magazine while besieging **Kalingar** in Bundlekhand. His

1545 A.D. second son succeeded, and followed very much in his father's footsteps in working for the good of the country; but his successors were weak and profligate. Under the last of the dynasty, **Hemu**, a **Hindu**, became minister and advanced the Hindus to rank and power. The Afghan nobles rebelled, and the way was thus made easy for the return of Humayun.

105. Humayun returns.—It is unnecessary to follow Humayun during his many years' wanderings. He recrossed the Indus in 1555 and defeating **Sikandar**, the last of the Sur dynasty, at **Sarhind**, advanced to Delhi and Agra, and mounted the throne he had lost fifteen years before. Humayun was destined to reign but a very short time. While descending the stair leading from the terrace of his palace, he heard the call to prayers. He sat down on the steps till the crier was done. He then arose leaning on his staff. The staff slipped on the polished marble, and Humayun fell headlong over the parapet, and died from the effects of his fall.

CHAPTER III.

THE MUGHAL EMPIRE IN ITS ZENITH.

AKBAR.

1556 A.D.—1605 A.D.

106. The Mughal Power restored—Second battle of Panipat.—**Hemu,** the Hindu, was in Bengal when Humayun died. When the news reached him, he advanced with a large army, and Delhi and Agra opened their gates to him. **Akbar,** now a boy of only thirteen years of age, was in the Punjab with **Bairam Khan,** his father's faithful friend and most distinguished general. Akbar was proclaimed emperor, and Bairam Khan was appointed regent. The Mughal army was composed of mere adventurers who cared for nothing but plunder. Bairam, nevertheless, kept them in order, and he resolved to engage Hemu in battle. The two armies met at Panipat. The Mughals were victorious. Hemu was taken prisoner and slain.

1556 A.D.

107. Akbar—1556 A.D.-1605 A.D.—His policy and conquests.—Akbar, during the first few years of his reign, was almost entirely engaged in putting down rebellions of his nobles. He next invaded Rajputana. The Rajput states were formed on a feudal basis. The landowners held their lands in return for military service. The vassal was under his lord, the lord under the Raja, the Raja under the Rana, who was head over all. The Rana at this time was **Udai Singh of Chitor.** Around his banner gathered the Raja of Jaipur and Jodhpur and others, and for five years the strife between the Hindus and the Mughals continued. Jaipur and Jodhpur were defeated. Then Akbar made known his policy. He desired to draw the Hindus and the Muhammadans more closely together and to make them more friendly to each other by intermarriages between the two races. He, as emperor, would become suzerain, *i. e.*, the highest chieftain of the Rajputs, and they would hold their lands under him. He would give his daughters in marriage to them, and he would marry their daughters. Those Rajputs, that thus became related to Akbar by marriage, were raised to high

1567 A.D.

positions in the state. But the Rana of Chitor would not enter into such an alliance, nor would he acknowledge Akbar as his suzerain. Akbar, therefore, besieged Chitor and laid it in ruins. **Udai Singh**, himself, escaped to the **Aravali hills**, and there founded **Udaipur**. Akbar next proceeded to the subjugation of the neighbouring states. Gujarat and Bengal were taken, and Orissa was made tributary to Delhi. Kashmir was added to the Mughal empire, and Ahmadnagar and Barar in the Deccan were subdued.

108. Akbar's character.—Akbar has been described as a tall and handsome man of a fair complexion. He was remarkable for strength and courage, was fond of exercise, and delighted in hunting and every kind of sport. He was beyond doubt the greatest of all the Muhammadan rulers in India. It is said of him, that he never fought a battle that he did not win, nor besiege a town that he did not take. But, though great as a warrior, he was perhaps greater as a statesman, and his fame rests more on the wise policy he adopted on the excellent institutions he established than on the conquests he made.

109. Akbar's religion.—Akbar is described by Muhammadan writers as being in religion a Muhammadan; but if so, he was not a very strict Muhammadan. He appointed Hindus to the highest offices in the state. Under the influence of **Abul Fazl**, a very learned man who rose to be minister, men of all religions were invited to his Court, and allowed to discuss religious questions. Akbar professed the highest respect for Christianity. Afterwards, under the influence of Abul Fazl, he founded a new religion, known as the *Divine Faith*, and allowed himself to be worshipped as a god. But before Akbar's death (1605), Abul Fazl was assassinated and Akbar returned to the Muhammadan faith.

110. Revenue Settlement.—**Todar Mall**, the great *financier*, was appointed to make a revenue settlement, *i.e.*, to fix the annual amount to be paid by the holders of land. Under his supervision, all the land was carefully measured, and divided into three classes according to its fertility, and the rent to be paid by the cultivator to the state was fixed at one-third the value of the produce.

111. Other reforms.—**Jaghirs** were abolished, and the soldiers were paid in cash, and not by gifts of land. **Jazyia**, a capitation tax on infidels, was discontinued; sati discouraged; and the practice of reducing captives to slavery abolished. These reforms are all recorded in the **Ain-i-Akbari**, "Laws and Regulations of Akbar," written by Abul Fazl.

CHAPTER IV.

JAHANGIR.

1605 A.D.—1627 A.D.

112. Jahangir—1605 A.D.-1627 A.D.—Akbar was succeeded by his son **Salim**, who ascended the throne under the title of **Jahangir**, 'conqueror of the world.' Jahangir was a drunkard. He was harsh and cruel, yet he prided himself on giving ready ear to all who had complaints to make, and in seeing that justice was done to them. Jahangir was a much stricter Muhammadan than his father.

113. Khusrau.—Khusrau, the son of Jahangir, was Akbar's favourite, and he was strongly inclined towards Christianity. Being afraid of his father he fled to Lahor. A large army, composed chiefly of **Rajputs**, came to his aid. Jahangir followed him Khusrau was betrayed and sent to his father in chains. Jahangir then took a terrible revenge. Seven hundred of Khusrau's followers were impaled in a line leading to the gates of Lahor. The wretched Khusrau was led through this line of victims, to hear their shrieks and see their agonies, and the sad sight made a life-long impression upon him. His own life was spared, but he was kept a prisoner till his death in 1621.

114. Nur Jahan.—During this period an event took place that influenced the whole reign of Jahangir. He married **Nur Mahal**, afterwards known as **Nur Jahan**, "the light of the world." Nur Mahal was of the most humble origin. Her parents were so poor that they were unable to support her, and they left her as a little child on the roadside to die, or to be taken care of, according as any person might take pity on her or not. A rich

merchant passing along the road observed the child, took her and brought her up as his own. Nur Mahal through him obtained frequent admission to Abkar's harem, and Jahangir having seen her was smitten with her beauty. Abkar, afraid that evil might follow from this, gave her in marriage to **Sher Khan**, an Afghan, and presented him with a *Jaghir* in **Bengal**. Nur Mahal was thus removed from Jahangir's sight. But though removed from him she was not forgotten. When he ascended the throne, he took means to have Sher Khan put to death, and he married the widow. From this time Nur Jahan's ascend-
1161 A.D. ency became unbounded. Her adoptive father, a very able and upright man, was made prime-minister; her brother was raised to high rank in the army; Jahangir would take no step without consulting her; and what she willed was law. Her life was one continuous scheming to retain this ascendency and, if possible, to fix the succession to the throne in her own family.

115. Shah Jahan in the Deccan.—Meanwhile Jahangir's attention was drawn to the Deccan.
1599 A.D. On the capture of Ahmadnagar by Akbar, **Malik Ambar**, an Abyssinian noble of great ability, had founded a new capital at **Kharki**, afterwards known as Aurangabad, and ruled there in the name of the young prince of the fallen house of Ahmadnagar. Bijapur and Golkonda had joined him. The combined forces had recaptured Ahmadnagar and driven the Mughal army as far north as Burhanpur. Shah Jahan, the third son of Jahangir, was sent into the Deccan against them.
1616 A.D. Before going thither he stood in the highest favour. He had married a niece of Nur Jahan; he had highly distinguished himself in a war against the Rajputs; he had been declared to be the heir-apparent to the throne. His conduct of the
1621 A.D. war in the Deccan was completley successful. He defeated Malik Ambar in the field, and compelled him to give up a considerable extent of territory, and to pay a large sum of money to the Emperor.

116. Shah Jahan rebels.—About this time Jahangir fell ill, and immediately there was a general plotting and

scheming as to who should be his successor in the case of his death. Shah Jahan had shown such great ability and decision of character, that Nur Jahan felt, that if he were to succeed Jahangir, her ascendency would be lost. Besides, Shahryar, Jahangir's youngest son, had married her daughter by her first husband. He was more closely related to her than Shah Jahan, who had married a niece. She resolved, therefore, to oppose Shah Jahan and support Shahryar. Shah Jahan marched to Agra and tried to seize the treasury. Jahangir hastened from Lahor. The father and son met in battle near Delhi. Shah Jahan was defeated and fled into the Deccan.

117. Jahangir a prisoner.—Meanwhile, dissensions broke out in the imperial army. Nur Jahan turned against Mahabat Khan, who had commanded in the Deccan. He was perhaps the most distinguished subject of the realm, and a man beloved by the people. Mahabat Khan, knowing that Nur Jahan meant to bring about his disgrace, formed the daring resolve of seizing Jahangir and thus overturning her projects. He fell upon Jahangir by surprise at the Jhelum and took him prisoner. Nur Jahan was completely baffled. The king was now beyond her influence. She tried to rescue him and in the attempt nearly lost her life. Subsequently, however, Jahangir made his escape, and Mahabat Khan fled to the Deccan and joined Shah Jahan. Jahangir died the following year, on his way from Kashmir to Lahor, in the sixtieth year of his age.

1626 A.D.

1627 A.D.

118. Sir T. Roe, English ambassador.—It was during this reign that Sir T. Roe was sent by James I. as English ambassador to the great Mughal. He was received with great honour, and has given us a description of the manners of the Court, and of the state of the country at the time of his visit. He describes the Durbar Hall as resembling an English theatre. All the grandees prostrated themselves on approaching the emperor. Sir T. Roe was present at a great party on the evening of Jahangir's birth-day, when the drinking was excessive. Jahangir, on that occasion, scattered rupees among the rabble, and gold and

1615 A.D.

silver almonds among the nobles, who scrambled for them like school-boys. Sir T. Roe accompanied the imperial camp into Rajputana, and he describes the camp as a moving city. There were the imperial pavilions and the pavilions of the nobles, and long streets of shops like the bazaars of a city; and, as at the different stages these were all arranged in the same order, there was no confusion. He found the cities of the Deccan much deserted, and altogether the country was not in such a prosperous condition as it had been in the time of Akbar.

CHAPTER V.

SHAH JAHAN.

1627 A.D.—1658 A.D.

119. Shah Jahan—1627 A.D.—1658 A.D.—Shah Jahan, on receiving the news of the death of his father, hastened to Agra and was proclaimed emperor. All the members of the Babar family, except Shah Jahan's children, were put to death, and the highest honours were conferred on Mahabat Khan, for the part he had taken in helping Shah Jahan to the throne. Nur Jahan retired into private life, and was allowed a pension of about twenty-five lakhs per annum.

120. Khan Jahan Lodi.—The early part of Shah Jahan's reign was disturbed by Khan Jahan, an Afghan, who rose in rebellion, and, marching into the Deccan, persuaded the king of Ahmadnagar to join him. Shah Jahan advanced against them in person. Khan Jahan was overtaken at Bundelkhand and slain, and the kingdom of Ahmadnagar was brought to an end, 1637.

121. Massacre of the Portuguese.—Shah Jahan hated the Portuguese. When he rebelled against his father he had asked them to assist him, but they had refused. He now took revenge. They had been permitted by Akbar to establish a settlement on the Hugli. It was reported to him that they were mounting cannon on their fort. He ordered the settlement to be captured. The men on refusing to become Muhammadans were slain and the women were made slaves.

122. Shah Jahan's four sons.—Shah Jahan had peace in his kingdom during the greater part of his reign. In 1557 he fell dangerously ill. The country was at once in a ferment Shah Jahan had four sons. All were governors of provinces, and it was known there would be a contest between them for the throne. Each son had a distinctive character. **Dara**, the eldest, as heir apparent, resided at the Court. He was frank and generous, but impatient of opposition. **Shuja** was governor of **Bengal**. He was wholly addicted to pleasure. **Aurangzeb** was governor of the **Deccan**. He was a perfect contrast to his elder brothers. He was cautious, brave, ever on the watch to gain friends, a perfect master in the art of dissimulation, and he professed to be very religious. **Morad** was governor of **Gujarat**. He was stupid and self-willed, and gave himself up to sensual pleasures. Dara was a *free thinker*, Shuja a *shiah*, and Aurangzeb and Morad, *sunnis*. The war which followed became to a considerable extent a religious war.

123. Fratricidal war.—Morad took up arms in Gujarat. Aurangzeb resolved to join him and use him as a means to work his own way to the throne. He wrote telling him that they should unite their armies, and try to prevent an infidel like Dara, or a shiah like Shuja, from gaining the throne. He said that he himself had no desire for empire. All he wished was to see a good and true Muhammadan at the head of the government, and then he would go on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Morad believed him. The two brothers united their armies. They met Dara in battle within a day's march of Agra. Dara's elephant was wounded and he was compelled to alight. A report was circulated that he was killed. Dara's soldiers retreated and he was forced to gallop off with only a handful of men to the Panjab. Aurangzeb congratulated Morad on having gained the kingdom. The victorious army marched to Agra, and made Shah Jahan prisoner. **1658 A.D.** Aurangzeb then pretended to be making preparations for Morad's coronation; when suddenly the announcement was made that Morad had been found drunk, and had been sent as a prisoner to Gwalior. Aurangzeb was, thereupon, proclaimed Emperor amid the acclamations of his soldiers.

124. Death of Shah Jahan.—Shah Jahan lived as a prisoner in his palace at Agra for eight years
1666 A.D. longer. He died in December 1666. Shah Jahan was a good and wise ruler. He will live in history in connection with his public works. **The Taj Mahal at Agra**, a mausoleum of white marble decorated with Mosaics, built in honour of his favourite wife, **Mumtaz Mahal**, is unsurpassed in the world for chasteness of design and richness of materials. Shah Jahan never lived at **Delhi**, but he built the new city there, and set up the *peacock throne*, which was considered one of the wonders of the world.

CHAPTER VI.

AURANGZEB.

1658 A.D.—1707 A.D.

125. Aurangzeb—1658 A.D.—1707 A.D.—Aurangzeb was proclaimed emperor at **Delhi**, but he was not crowned till a year later. He had still much work to do before he could establish himself firmly on the throne. **Dara** and **Shuja** were still at liberty, and were gathering armies to contend with him for the crown. Shuja advanced from Bengal. Aurangzeb set out to meet him. The armies came up with each other near **Allahabad.** Aurangzeb was victorious. Shuja fled to Bengal and thence to Arakan, where he perished miserably. Aurangzeb then went in pursuit of **Dara**, who fell into the hands of an Afghan, by whom he was betrayed and sent to Delhi in chains. There he was tried and condemned to death as an infidel. Before he was beheaded he was led in procession through the streets, that the people might see him. Aurangzeb had now no rivals left, and was installed at Delhi as sovereign of the Mughal empire.

126. Aurangzeb's policy.-Had Aurangzeb followed the policy of Akbar, and united the Mughal and the Rajput still more closely, he might have consolidated his empire, and reigned the undisputed monarch of the whole of India. But the great aim of his life, now that he was firmly placed

on the throne, was the destruction of idolatry and the establishment of Muhammadanism throughout the length and breadth of the land. His zeal was strengthened by the revolt of the **Satnarainas** near Narnul. They were a sect of Hindu devotees that considered themselves to be under the special protection of the Almighty, and, therefore, invincible. Aurangzeb wrote some texts of the Koran with his own hand and attached them to his standards. His soldiers, believing themselves thereby protected from the spell, rushed on the Hindus and defeated them. **1676 A.D.**

127. Religious persecutions.–Aurangzeb degraded the Rajputs who were at his court. All Hindus employed under Government were compelled either to embrace the Muslim faith or lose their appointments. Idols were overturned, pagodas destroyed and mosques built with the materials. Even in the holy city of Benares, the most sacred temples were levelled to the ground, mosques erected in their places, and the images used as steps for 'the faithful' to tread on. Hindus were not allowed to celebrate their festivals, and jazyia, a tax on infidels that had been abolished by Akbar, was revived. No tax could possibly be more unpopular than this jazyia, and the imposition of it led to the most fatal consequences to the empire.

128. Aurangzeb invades Rajputana.-Aurangzeb next proceeded to introduce his persecuting measures into Rajputana. The **Rana** of Udaipur had been left undisturbed for years. Aurangzeb now went against him. But he was as brave and determined as his ancestors and refused to yield. When he was driven from Udaipur, he took refuge in the **Aravali** Hills, and there for years defiled the whole army of Aurangzeb. The mighty Mughal army took possession of the plains; but into the fastnesses of the Rajput princes they dared not venture. Years were spent, treasure was wasted, and the Mughal strength reduced, but to no purpose. Aurangzeb was in the end forced to withdraw his troops and leave t he Rajputs to worship their god free from disturbance.Meanwhile, another Hindu people (the Mahrattas), had established a power in the Deccan which in the course of time was to sweep over the whole country from Tanjore to Lahor, from Orissa to Gujarat.

CHAPTER VII.

RISE OF THE MAHRATTAS.—SIVAJI.

1627 A.D.—1680 A.D.

129. Maharashtra.—Maharashtra (literally, the *Great Kingdom*), the country of the Mahrattas, embraced that mountainous district lying between the **Central Provinces** and the **Arabian Sea.** Its northern boundary extended from near **Surat,** eastwards along the Satpura mountains, as far as the Wain Ganga, east of **Nagpur**; the eastern boundary followed the Wain Ganga and the Wardha as far south as **Manikdrug**; while a waving line drawn from Manikdrug to **Mahur** and thence to **Goa** marked the southern boundary. On the west it was bounded by the Sea.

130. Sivaji.—When **Ala-ud-din** invaded the Deccan and captured Deogiri, **Ramdeo**, a Mahratta prince, was

reigning there. Until the rise of **Sivaji**, the Mahrattas play but an insignificant part in history. This Sivaji was the son of **Shahji**, a member of the *Bhonsle* family. He was born in the fort of **Saoner**, and brought up at **Puna**, under the care of Dadaji Kundeo, a Brahman. Sivaji was educated in true Mahratta fashion. **1627 A.D.** He could never write his own name; but he was a splendid archer, was well skilled in the use of the spear, the sword and the javelin, and he excelled in horsemanship. Nothing pleased Sivaji as a boy more than to listen to the recital of the Ramayana or the Mahabharata, and often would he long to emulate the exploits of the heroes of those poems. From about his sixteenth year, he began to associate with lawless characters and freebooters, and as he was of a free, happy and jovial disposition, he soon became very popular amongst them.

131. Sivaji takes several forts.—Sivaji commenced his work of plundering and conquest by taking the fort of **Torna**. While digging amongst its ruins, he came upon a large quantity of gold that had been **1646 A.D.** secreted there at a very remote time. This good luck he attributed to the favour of the goddess Bhawani, and with the money he purchased arms and ammunition, and built another fort, **Rajgarh. Kondaneh** and **Gopa** fell into his hands, and by the most artful treachery he got possession of **Purandhar.**

132. Afzul Khan killed.—Sivaji next captured **Callian.** When the news of this reached the court of Bijapur all was excitement and anxiety. **Adil Shah** was then Sultan. He resolved to crush these Mahrattas at once, and to this end sent a large army under the command of **Afzul Khan** against Sivaji, who had gone to the fort of **Pertabgarh.** When Sivaji heard of Afzul Khan's approach, he sent the most humble messages. He said he was very sorry for his past conduct. He could not oppose such a distinguished general as Afzul Khan If Afzul Khan could assure him of his favour and pardon, he would surrender the whole country. He begged Afzul Khan to meet him at some place and hold a conference. Afzul Khan, thrown off his guard, consented. They met

During the customary embrace, Sivaji stuck the wagnakh or tiger's claws, a small steel instrument with hooked blades which he held concealed on the fingers of his left hand, into the body of Afzul Khan and stabbed him to the heart with his dagger. Sivaji's troops, who were in ambush, rushed on the troops of Bijapur and cut them to pieces. This treachery and the success that followed greatly raised Sivaji in the estimation of the Mahrattas, and the horses, elephants, treasure and baggage which fell into his hands greatly strengthened his position.

133. Sivaji attacks the Mughals.—Sivaji resolved to attack the Mughals. With a large army he invaded the Mughal dominions, and swept through the country, striking terror wherever he went. Aurangzeb ordered **Shaista Khan**, the viceroy of the Deccan, to punish Sivaji for this daring incursion. Shaista Khan at once advanced into the Mahratta country, took **Puna** and set up his residence in the very house in which Sivaji was brought up. Then was performed by Sivaji one of those feats, which struck with wonder the minds of his countrymen, and which they delight to exult over even in the present day. Sivaji with a few followers mingled, unobserved, with a crowd that was following a marriage procession in Puna, and, during the night when all was quiet, they attacked the house of Shaista Khan. Shaista Khan escaped with the loss of one of his fingers, and
1664 A.D. Sivaji and his men retired before the Mughal troops could be gathered together to intercept them. He next attacked **Surat**, and plundered the city for six days.

134. Agreement of Purandhar.—Sivaji, having built a fleet, waylaid the Mughal ships on their way to **Mecca**, and exacted heavy ransoms from the rich pilgrims. This roused the religious wrath of Aurangzeb. Hitherto he had affected to despise Sivaji, whom he called "a mountain rat." But this sacrilege of plundering pilgrims on their way to Mecca could not be overlooked. A large army was sent against Sivaji, who was soon reduced to difficulties, and forced to enter into a treaty at Purandhar, by which he agreed to surrender all the territory he had taken from the Mughals. In return he was

allowed to collect Chauth, one-fourth of the revenue, on certain territories of Bijapur.

135. Sivaji at Delhi.—Aurangzeb subsequently invited Sivaji to court. Sivaji accepted the invitation and set out for Delhi, accompained by five hundred choice horsemen. On his arrival there, he thought he was treated with great indignity when he was ranked only amongst those who commanded five thousand troops. He resented this and was made a prisoner. But he managed to get himself conveyed out of the palace in a basket, and arrived at Raigarh in December 1666. **1666 A.D.**

136. Sivaji crowned.—Sivaji then determined to assume the ensigns of royalty, and was crowned at Raigarh with the most solemn rites and ceremonies. He was weighed against gold, and the money was given to the Brahmans. Large sums were likewise distributed in charity. The titles Sivaji assumed were of the most lofty and pretentious kind, and in public he appeared in all the state and display of royalty. **1674 A.D.**

137. Sivaji invades the Carnatic.—Sivaji attacked Bijapur and Golkonda and compelled them to pay tribute. He then undertook the invasion of the Carnatic. He passed Madras on his way to Jinji, which surrendered to him. Another division of his army captured Vellore. On his way back with the booty that he had secured, he was intercepted by the Mughals; but by desperate fighting and personal bravery, he was enabled to get clear away and he reached Raigarh in safety. **1674 A.D.** **1679 A.D.**

138. Death of Sivaji.—Sivaji died at Raigarh on the 5th April, 1680, in the 53rd year of his age. He was succeeded by his son Sambhaji.

CHAPTER VIII.

AURANGZEB—(Continued).

1658 A.D.—1707 A.D.

139. Aurangzeb invades the Deccan.—Aurangzeb resolved to crush this new Mahratta power, and to reduce to submission the other kingdoms of Southern India. In 1683 he left Delhi and he was destined never to return thither. His camp was supplied with every luxury that could be procured. "The canvas walls which surrounded the emperor's personal encampment were twelve hundred yards in circumference, and the tents contained halls of audience, courts, cabinets mosques, oratories and baths adorned with the finest silks and velvets and cloth of gold." It is said that not fewer than one million persons were assembled in his camp. With such an unwieldy army, Aurangzeb marched into the **Deccan.** He continued his old unwise policy. Instead of making friends with the Hindus of the South, he at once levied *jazyia*, and stirred up their hatred. He sent his son, Muzzam, with an army of forty thousand men into the Mahratta country; but this army was powerless to dislodge the Mahrattas from their hill forts, while the Mahrattas in turn laid waste the plains. Famine and pestilence followed, and only a remnant of the Mughal army returned. Aurangzeb captured **Bijapur** in 1686, and from this date Bijapur lost all its importance. The following year **Golkonda** was taken. The whole of the **Karnatic** and **Telingana** except the country of the **Mahrattas**, and the principality of **Tanjore**, was subsequently overrun. The Mughal power had now reached its greatest height. From this time we must date its **decline** and fall.

1683 A.D.

1686 A.D.

1688 A.D.

140. Death of Aurangzeb.—The remaining years of Aurangzeb's life were spent in camp, fighting with the Mahrattas and putting down plots among his own generals. As he increased in years, his government began to languish. The luxury of the camp was demoralizing to

the soldiers. The army became disorganized. Aurangzeb secured the person of **Sambhaji** (para. 138) and put him to a cruel death, and took **Sahu**, Sambhaji's son, captive; but this only stirred the Mahrattas up the more against him. His soldiers could make little way against those free-booters. They could not venture into the defiles of the Konkan, where the Mahrattas took shelter, and they were ever being taken by surprise by the Mahrattas when on the plains. Aurangzeb was at last compelled to retreat. He retired to Ahmadnagar, where he died. **1707 A.D.**

141. Aurangzeb's character.—From a strictly Muhammadan point of view, Aurangzeb was a great and good man. His zeal for the Faith of Islam and the way in which he persecuted idolaters must give him a high place in the estimation of Muhammadans, and may lead them even to regard him as the greatest of the Mughal Emperors. In personal bravery, military talents and devotion to business, he was probably as great as Akbar. The way in which he oppressed the Rajputs and forced jazyia on Southern India makes his policy a marked contrast to that of Akbar. Akbar won the Hindus to his side. Aurangzeb by his persecutions drove them into open enmity. When Aurangzeb died, he left the Mughal empire in a weak and disunited condition.

CHAPTER IX.

DECLINE OF THE MUGHAL EMPIRE.

RISE OF THE SIKHS.

1707 A.D.—1712 A.D.

142. Bahadur Shah—1707 A.D.-1712 A.D.—When Aurangzeb died, his sons went to war for the throne. Shah Alam, the eldest son, at last succeeded under the title of **Bahadur Shah**, and reigned for five years. The Rajputs refused to pay jazyia and asserted their independence; but Bahadur Shah was forced to leave them

alone, as all the resources of the empire were required against another people, the Sikhs.

143. Rise of the Sikhs.—Nanak Shah.—The word Sikh means disciple or devoted follower. The Sikhs were originally a religious sect, the followers of **Nanak Shah.** Nanak Shah was born in 1469. From childhood he gave himself up to religious study. He visited almost all the sacred places in India and went even to Mecca. He began to preach about 1490. His great aim was to reconcile the two faiths of the Hindus and the Muhammadans in one religion. He called on the Hindus to lay aside their idols and return to the worship of the one God. He called on the Muhammadans to abstain from killing the cow and to give up religious persecution. Love to God and love to our fellowmen was the doctrine he taught. The third Guru, 'spiritual leader,' after Nanak was murdered by the Muhammadans in 1606, and the Sikhs, who up to that time had been a peaceable people, took to arms under Har Govind, a son of the murdered Guru, and put to death every one that they suspected of being concerned in the murder. **Guru Govind**, the tenth and last Guru, formed them into a nation of warriors. He abolished all caste distinction. He changed the name of the followers from Sikh to Sing, 'lion.' All Guru Govind's disciples were required always to carry *steel* in some shape or other; to wear a blue dress; to allow their hair to grow; and to exclaim when they met each other, "Success to the state of the Guru! Victory attend the Guru." The Sikhs under Guru Govind began to propagate their faith by the sword.

1708 A.D. Many battles were fought between them and the Muhammadans. In 1708, Guru Govind's forces were utterly routed, and he had to flee under cover of the night from **Chamkour.** His children were massacred, his followers mutilated in the most cruel way, and he himself was forced to lead the life of a wanderer. On the death of Guru Govind, **Banda,** a great friend of the Guru's, gathered the scattered Sikhs together, entered **Sarhind**, and avenged the massacre of Guru Govind's family by putting almost all the inhabitants to the sword. He polluted all the mosques of the city, and subdued all the country between

the Satlej and the Jumna. Banda was subsequently defeated by Bahadur Shah and put to a horrible death. The Sikhs were hunted like wild beasts and every means was taken to exterminate the race. The few that escaped fled to the hills in the north-east of the Panjab. Nothing more was heard of them for thirty years, when they suddenly issued from their fastnesses and seized some of the plunder Nadir Shah was carrying off to Persia (para. 146). From that time the Sikhs formed themselves into a kind of republic. On the death of Ahmad Shah (para. 154), they conquered Lahor and Sarhind. But they were no longer the united body they had been under Guru Govind.

1738 A.D.

CHAPTER X.

NADIR SHAH—MASSACRE AT DELHI.

1712 A.D.—1748 A.D.

144. Farrukh Siyar—1713 A.D.-1719 A.D.—Jahandar Shah, a debauched young prince, succeeded Bahadur Shah. He had not been twelve months on the throne, when his openly shameless and depraved life turned the people from him, and **Farrukh Siyar**, a grandson of Bahadur Shah, taking advantage of this, raised the standard of revolt. He was joined by two Sayyids of power and influence. The one, **Sayyid Husain Ali**, was Governor of Bihar, the other, **Sayyid Abdulla**, of Allahabad. A great battle was fought near Agra. Jahandar Shah was defeated and he fled to Delhi. Farrukh Siyar followed, entered the town in triumph, put the king to death, and amidst the acclamations of the multitude ascended the throne. He reigned for six years, when the two Sayyids, finding out that he was plotting their destruction, surrounded his palace, dragged him from the zenana, and put him to death. The two Sayyids, "The king-makers" as they have been called, were now all-powerful. Within a few months two infant kings were placed by them on the

throne, only to pass away the one after the other into an untimely grave. Muhammad Shah was next raised to the imperial dignity, and he was the *last emperor* that sat on the *peacock throne.*

145. Muhammad Shah—1719 A.D.—1748 A.D.—The whole of Muhammad Shah's reign is a history of plots and counterplots amongst its nobles, and of inroads made on the empire by the Mahrattas.

146. Invasion of Nadir Shah.—While the country was in this condition, Nadir Shah crossed the Indus and shook the empire to its very centre. Nadir Shah, originally a freebooter, had usurped the throne of Persia and conquered Afghanistan. At the request of Nizam-ul-mulk the founder of the dynasty of the "Nizams of the Deccan,' he invaded India, and, coming up with the Mughal army at Karnal, gained a complete victory. Plunder, not conquest, was the object of his invasion; and when Muhammad Shah offered him a large sum of money if he would leave the kingdom, he willingly consented to do
1739 A.D. so, and advanced to Delhi to receive the treasure. Then there took place one of those frightful massacres, that make one shudder at man's cruelty.

147. Massacre at Delhi.—Nadir Shah was magnificently entertained by Muhammad Shah and lodged in the palace. From some unknown cause, a report was spread abroad that he had died. The people of Delhi at once rose against his soldiers and several were killed. Next day Nadir Shah, enraged at seeing the dead bodies of his men, let loose his army on the city, and man, woman and child were unmercifully put to the sword. Nadir Shah sat in a mosque while the deadly work went on, and not until Muhammad Shah, sick with the sight of the dead and heart-broken at hearing the groans of the dying, begged of him to have mercy, did Nadir Shah give orders to his soldiers to stop. The number of the slain can never be known; but it was many thousands. The city was plundered. The peacock throne and all the palace jewels became the spoil of the conqueror. The amount of money that Nadir Shah carried away was immense He gave all his soldiers three months' pay, and for a year remitted all taxation throughout the Persian empire.

148. Extent of the Empire in 1748 A.D.—The invasion of Nadir Shah inflicted a mortal blow on the Mughal empire. Muhammad Shah lived till 1748, but he was an Emperor almost only in name. Before his death the only provinces that remained under the direct authority of the Government were part of the Upper Duab and the districts south of the Satlej. Bengal, Orissa and Bihar had come into the possession of a Tartar, Alivirdi Khan by name, and his successors ruled there. Oudh was under its own king. The Rohillas, under Muhammad Ali, an Afghan, had set up an independent state in Rohilkhand in 1744. The Panjab had been surrendered to Ahmad Shah. The south of India had been recovered by the Hindus, except those portions belonging to the Nizam's family.

CHAPTER XI.

GROWTH OF THE MAHRATTA POWER.

1708 A.D.—1760 A.D.

149. Sahu—1708 A.D.-1748 A.D.—Sahu when a boy of only six years of age was carried off to Delhi (para. 140), and was brought up at the Mughal court. In 1708 he was set at liberty, and he had little difficulty in placing himself on the throne of Maharashtra. He was a man of a very different character from either his father or his grandfather. He was fond of amusements and hated business. Brought up in the midst of all the luxury of the imperial zenana, he was but little fitted to rule over such a wild and warlike people as the Mahrattas. During the first five years of his reign anarchy prevailed, and the Mahratta power must have fallen to pieces, had there not arisen one who was able to establish a settled system of government in the country. This man was Balaji Viswanath. He was appointed Peshwa, **1714 A.D.** *that is*, Prime-minister, in 1714, and as he was the first to raise this office to be the supreme power in the Mahratta kingdom, he is known in history as the first Peshwa.

150. Balaji Viswanath, First Peshwa—1714 A.D.—1720 A.D.—In the hands of Balaji Viswanath and his able successors, Sahu became a mere puppet. All orders continued to be issued in Sahu's name, and made to appear as if they proceeded from him. At the same time, the Peshwa and his ministers became the real authority. The Peshwa was a Brahmin, and all the offices in the state were held by Brahmins, and became hereditary. While Balaji Viswanath was Peshwa, he received from the Emperor the right to collect chauth throughout the Deccan, and was made absolute sovereign of the districts possessed by Sivaji at the time of his death.

151. Baji Rao, Second Peshwa—1720 A.D.-1740 A.D.—Baji Rao inherited all his father's ability as a statesman, and having been trained to habits of business and bred a soldier, he was enabled during his administration to extend considerably the Mahratta power. It was during his administration that those Mahratta families who afterwards established themselves as independent powers began to rise. The family of the **Gaikwar** of Baroda arose in **Gujarat**; those of **Holkar** and of **Sindia** in **Malwa**; and the **Bhonsle** family, the same family to which Sivaji belonged, established themselves in Barar. Baji Rao's great aim was to extend the Mahratta power in Hindustan. One army invaded Malwa and Gujarat, and levied contributions. Mulhar Rao Holkar made incursions beyond Agra; and Baji Rao himself advanced to Delhi. Nizam-ul-mulk was, thereupon, summoned to **Delhi**, and the fullest powers were granted him to drive back the Mahrattas. But Baji Rao came up with him at
1738 A.D. **Bhopal**, surrounded him, and forced him to sign a convention at **Seronje**, by which Nizam-ul-mulk promised to grant to Baji Rao the whole of **Malwa**, and the complete sovereignty of the territory between the Chambal and the Narbada.

152. Balaji Baji Rao, Third Peshwa—1740 A.D.-1761 A.D.—Balaji Baji Rao succeeded, and, on the death of Sahu, became sovereign in reality, though he continued to reign under the old name of Peshwa. During his reign the Bhonsle family over-ran **Orissa** and penetrated **Bengal**. Mulhar Rao Holkar entered **Bundel-**

khand. Raganath Rao marched into Lahor in triumph. Maisur and the Carnatic were invaded by the Peshwa in person, and tribute was levied from both. Salabat Jang and Nizam Ali were defeated in the great battle of Udgir, and compelled to give up Ahmadnagar, 1760 A.D. and the greater part of the province of Aurangabad to the Mahrattas. The Muhammadan power in the Deccan was thus reduced to the narrowest limits, while over the whole of the imperial territory chauth had been promised to the Mahrattas by Muhammad Shah.

CHAPTER XII.

AHMAD SHAH ABDALI—SHAH ALAM II.

1760 A.D.—1803 A.D.

153. The Mahratta power had now reached its zenith. The conquest of the Panjab and the capture of Lahor brought in upon the Mahrattas an 1760 A.D. enemy that shook their kingdom to its centre, and this date may be taken as marking the beginning of the decline and fall of the Mahratta power.

154. Ahmad Shah Abdali.—Ahmad Shah was the chief of the Afghan tribe, Abdali. On the death of Nadir Shah, he laid hold on the kingdom of Kandahar, and subsequently secured to himself the Panjab and Multan. When he heard of Lahor having been captured by the Mahrattas, he collected a large army and marched into India to recover his lost possession. Sivadas Rao, the hero of Udgir, set out from the Deccan against him. The war became a war of nationalities—of religions. Were the Hindus or the Afghans to be the rulers of India? The Rajputs, the Pindaris and the Jats flocked in vast numbers to the Mahratta standards. The Rohillas and the Viceroy of Oudh joined Ahmad Shah. The two armies met at Panipat (the third battle of Panipat). The Mahrattas took up an entrenched position and waited to be 1761 A.D. attacked. Ahmad Shah blockaded them and reduced them to the utmost extremities from want of provisions. At last the Mahrattas issued from their

position, resolved to conquer or die. From early morning till afternoon the battle raged with the utmost fury, and for a time it seemed as if the Hindus were to be victorious. But the Afghans were physically stronger than the Hindus of the south, and in the close, long-continued, hand to hand struggle that took place, the Hindus were overmatched. The Jats deserted the Mahrattas in a body. Mulhar Rao Holkar treacherously withdrew his forces from the field. The battle was lost. Thousands of the Mahrattas were cut down in the flight. Many took refuge in the village of Panipat. Next morning the village was surrounded, the fugitives were taken, drawn up in line and beheaded. The women and children were carried off as slaves. As many as two hundred thousand Mahrattas perished in the campaign. There was wailing and mourning in every Mahratta home, and a gloom overhung the whole of Maharashtra. When the sad news reached Balaji Baji Rao, it broke his heart. He died in 1761. Ahmad Shah advanced to Delhi, and, having placed the Afghans in power, returned to Kandahar.

155. Shah Alam II—1761 A.D.—1803 A.D.—The struggle between the Hindu and the Afghan went on. In 1771 the Mahrattas under Mahadaji Sindia again entered Delhi, drove **Zabita Khan,** the Afghan ruler, from the city, and secured the return of **Shah Alam II,** son of Muhammad Shah. From this time the Mahrattas remained masters of Delhi till 1803, with the exception of an interval of a few months in 1788, when **Ghulam Kadir,** son of **Zabita** Khan, obtained possession of the city. On that occasion Shah Alam's eyes were put out, because Ghulam Kadir thought he was concealing his treasure. In 1803 Shah Alam was rescued from the hands of the Mahrattas by General Lake, and left to dwell in the palace, supported by a handsome pension from the British Government.

Leading Dates of the Mughal Period.

	A.D.
First Battle of Panipat	1526
Battle of Sikri	1527
Battle of Baxar	1539
Sher Shah killed at Kalingar	1545
Second Battle of Panipat	1556
Akbar conquers Rajputana	1567
Aurangabad founded by Malik Ambar	1599
Death of Akbar	1605
Sir T. Roe, ambassador from James I.	1615
Shah Jahan defeats Malik Ambar	1621
Jahangir taken prisoner at the Jhelum	1626
Ahmadnagar extinguished	1637
Aurangzeb proclaimed Emperor	1658
Aurangzeb defeats the Satnarainis at Narnul	1676
Aurangzeb invades the Deccan	1683
Muazzam invades Maharashtra	1686
Bijapur overthrown	1686
Golkonda overthrown	1687
Greatest extent of the Mughal Empire	1688
The Rajputs regain their independence	1709
Convention at Seronji	1738
Nadir Shah's invasion	1739
Sack of Delhi	1739
Rise of the Rohillas	1744
Battle of Udgir	1760
Third Battle of Panipat	1761

BRITISH INDIA.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY ENGLISH VOYAGES.

1577 A.D.—1707 A.D.

156. At the time when the Portuguese were doubling the Cape of Good Hope (para. 95), and establishing their supremacy in the eastern seas, England held an inferior position as a maritime power. But during the reign of **Queen Elizabeth**, one of England's greatest sovereigns (1558-1603), the utmost energies of that country were called forth to keep foreign invaders from its shores, and before the death of Elizabeth England had become one of the first naval powers in Europe. The Portuguese had discovered the way to India round the Cape of Good Hope, and, according to the ideas of that time, they alone had the right to sail by that route. But the English, having failed to find any other way to India by which they could with profit carry on their trade, resolved to go by the Cape, even though they should run the risk of having to fight the Portuguese in eastern waters.

157. Origin of the East India Company.—A company was formed, and a charter was granted

1599 A.D. by Queen Elizabeth "*to the Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies*," giving them the sole right to trade in those regions for fifteen years. This was the origin of the East India Company. Permission was soon obtained from the Emperor of Delhi to erect factories at **Surat**, **Ahmadabad** and **Kambay**. But the Company had many difficulties to contend with. The **Portuguese** and the **Dutch** who had possessed settlements in the east prior to the arrival of the English, looked on the latter with suspicion and hatred. The Portuguese attacked the English ships, but they invariably suffered defeat.

The hatred of the Dutch showed itself in the "***Massacre of Amboyna,***" when ten Englishmen were executed on a groundless charge of conspiracy. **1623 A.D.** Nor was the Company disturbed by foreign powers alone. Private adventurers sprang up, who cried out against the trade of the east being monopolized, and who persisted in carrying on trade there, though it was unlawful for them to do so. To those adventurers, who were for the most part roving pirate captains, the Company gave the name of "*interlopers.*" A rival Company was also started. **1708 A.D.** But the strivings and contentions between the two Companies were so disastrous to both, that they amalgamated under the name of "**the United East India Company.**"

158. The Company's early settlements.—**Surat** for a considerable time remained the principal settlement of the English in India, and it continued to be the seat of the Presidency until 1662, when the island of **Bombay** came into their possession. **1625 A.D.** The earliest settlement on the Coromandel Coast was at **Armagon**, some miles south of Nellore; and a factory was afterwards erected at **Masulipatam.** In 1639, the Raja of Chandragiri gave the Company a piece of land at **Madraspatam.** They erected a fort there and called it **Fort St. George.** The **Dutch** had previously established a settlement at **Pulicat.** The **French** too formed a company, and fixed on **Pondicherry** as their settlement. The English, out of hostility, purchased **Tegnapatam,** a place only twelve miles south of Pondicherry, and built a fort, "**Fort St. David,**" which soon became famous in Indian history. In 1656 the English erected a factory on the **Hugli.** The Company, having subsequently met with opposition from the native rulers of Bengal, declared war against the Great Mughal. Forty native ships were burnt in the harbour of Balasore. **Aurangzeb** was then Emperor. Enraged at this violent proceeding, he ordered a general attack on all the Company's settlements. Surat and Masulipatam were soon reduced, and Bombay was besieged. The English, thereupon, sued for peace in the most humble way, and Aurangzeb allowed the trade to be resumed.

159. Policy of the Company.—From this time the policy of the Company was changed. They
1689 A.D. resolved that "independence was to be established in India, and dominion acquired." The Zemindari of Calcutta was secured, and a fort, called Fort William, was erected there. It was made the seat of a Presidency in 1707.

CHAPTER II.

THE ENGLISH AT MADRAS.

160. The French and the English at war.—For many years after the building of Fort William the English were allowed to carry on their trade in peace. But this quiet was to be disturbed. England went to war with France, and the French resolved to attack the English factories in the East. Fort St. George was at that time the most important settlement on the Coromandel Coast. Outside the fort native villages had sprung up with amazing rapidity. Thousands of weavers had settled there, and the trade had become very considerable.

161. Madras taken by the French.—In 1746, a French fleet, commanded by Labourdonnais, Governor of Bourbon and the Mauritius, appeared off
1746 A.D. Madras. The English were ill-prepared to oppose them. After a resistance of five days the English surrendered their fort and warehouses. Labourdonnais then sailed for Pondicherry, promising to restore the fort to the English on their paying a moderate ransom.

162. Dupleix.—Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry, had set his heart on driving the English out of India, and establishing the French power. He accused Labourdonnais of having taken bribes from the English, and refused to acknowledge the engagements made by him.* He seized all the booty he could find in Fort St. George, and, carrying the English and their Governor off as prisoners of war,

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* When Labourdonnais returned to France he was thrown into prison, where he was kept for three years. He died soon after his liberation.

entered Pondicherry in triumph. The effect of this was for a time disastrous to the English. It lowered them as a fighting people in the eyes of the natives and added

greatly to the power and prestige of the French. The Nawab of the Carnatic, dreading the growth of the latter power, sent ten thousand troops to seize Madras. They were met by a French force of only four hundred men and were utterly routed. Then was again seen what had formerly been discovered by the Portuguese at Cochin, that hordes of ill-disciplined Asiatics were powerless against a few well-trained European troops. Another and important discovery—that natives when drilled and led by European officers made good soldiers—was soon afterwards made by Dupleix, and both the English and the French at once took advantage of the discovery.

163. Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.—**The war in** Europe between France and England was brought to a close by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. **By this treaty Madras was restored to the Company.**

CHAPTER III.

DISPUTED SUCCESSIONS IN THE CARNATIC AND IN THE DECCAN. THE FRENCH POWER IN INDIA AT ITS ZENITH.

1748 A.D.—1751 A.D.

164. The year 1748 was an eventful **year in the His-**
tory of India. **Muhammad Shah** died at Delhi.
1748 A.D. Sahu died at Satara and the rule of the **Peshwas** began. **Ahmad Shah** invaded the Panjab. The great **Nizam-ul-Mulk** died at Haidarabad. The death of Nizam-ul-Mulk led **to important events in the** Peninsula.

165. Disputed successions.—Nizam-ul-Mulk had established his power at Haidarabad and claimed authority over the Carnatic. The **First Nawab** of the Carnatic had been appointed by him. On the death of that Nawab, an adopted son had succeeded without making any reference to Haidarabad. Nizam-ul-Mulk marched to Arcot and appointed a new Nawab of the Carnatic, named **Anwar-ud-din** (1734). By the death of Nizam-ul-Mulk, **Anwar-ud-din** lost his supporter; and one, **Chanda Sahib,** a member of the previous Carnatic family, applied to the French to place him on the throne of the Carnatic. At the same time a dispute arose between **Nasir Jang,** a son, and **Muzaffar Jang,** a grandson, of Nizam-ul-Mulk, regarding the succession at Haidarabad. Muzaffar Jang joined Chanda Sahib, and they applied to the French for help. The united armies marched into the Carnatic, defeated Anwar-ud-din at **Ambur,** and left him
1749 A.D. dead on the field. They then advanced to Arcot, and Chanda Sahib was proclaimed Nawab of the Carnatic. **Muhammad Ali,** the son of Anwar-ud-din, fled with the remnant of his army to **Trichinopoly.**

166. Dupleix all-powerful in Southern India.—Good fortune still followed Dupleix. **Jinji**, the strongest fortress in the Carnatic—the scene of many a contest between Mahratta and Mughal—was taken by his distinguished General, Bussy. Nasir Jang was shot by his own followers. Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jang proceeded to Pondicherry, where they were received with the wildest joy. Salutes were fired in their honor. Muzaffar Jang was installed Viceroy of the Deccan with the greatest pomp. Dupleix was appointed *Governor of India from the Krishna to Cape Comorin*, and presented with money to the value of twenty lakhs and also with many valuable **jewels**. Chanda Sahib was made Nawab of the Carnatic *under the authority of Dupleix*. Muzaffar Jang did not enjoy his high position long. He was killed on his return to the Deccan, and Bussy, who had gone with him, appointed **Salabat Jang**, a younger son of Nizam-ul-Mulk, his successor, amid the acclamations of the army. Dupleix had been completely successful. He was now practically the ruler of the Carnatic and the Deccan. The natives had been dazzled by his success, and he loved to display his greatness in the eyes of the people. To commemorate his triumph, he erected a column bearing an inscription proclaiming his glory in four languages and built a city around it and called it Dupleix-fatcih-abad, *i.e.*, "The City of the Victory of Dupleix."

1750 A.D.

CHAPTER IV.

THE ENGLISH TRIUMPHANT IN THE CARNATIC. ROBERT CLIVE.

1751 A.D.—1752 A.D.

167. The English had been **almost wholly inactive** during this period. They had secured from the Raja of Tanjore a settlement at **Devikottah**, near the mouth of the Koleroon. They had acknowledged Muhammad Ali, Nawab

of the **Carnatic,** and had sent small detachments more than once to his aid. Muhammad Ali was now closely besieged in **Trichinopoly** by Chanda Sahib, and was on the point of capitulating. Were Muhammad Ali to surrender, Dupleix, who was now all-powerful in Southern India, would use Chanda Sahib to drive the English out of the Peninsula. The safety of the English depended on the fate of Muhammad Ali. It was, therefore, necessary that every effort should be put forth to save him. Troops were sent to the relief of Trichinopoly, and many skirmishes took place between the French and the English. In one of these, a young captain, named **Robert Clive,** who had come out as a Clerk in the Company's service, greatly distinguished himself.

1751 A.D.

168. Clive captures Arcot.—Clive was at that time only twenty-five years of age. He proposed to the Governor of Madras to send an expedition against **Arcot,** the capital of the Nawab. The garrison left there by Chanda Sahib was small. If the English could capture Arcot, it would force Chanda Sahib to send large detachments from Trichinopoly for its recovery, and the siege of Trichinopoly might be raised. The authorities at Madras agreed to the proposal, and Clive was appointed to the command. With two hundred Europeans and three hundred sepoys Clive marched from Madras. The weather was bad, but through thunder, lightning and rain they pressed on, and, when their advance was reported to the garrison at Arcot, the latter left the fort, and Clive and his men entered without striking a blow. The fort was in Clive's hands, but he knew well he would not be allowed to remain in undisturbed possession of it. He at once began to collect provisions, and to repair the walls in anticipation of a siege.

169. The Defence of Arcot.—The result of the capture of Arcot was as Clive had anticipated. When the news reached Trichinopoly that the capital and favourite residence of the Nawab was in the hands of the English, there was the wildest excitement. Chanda Sahib at once sent off an army of four thousand men under his son **Raja Sahib.** It was strengthened by one hundred and fifty French sent from Pondicherry and other forces that Raja

Sahib met on the way. When Raja Sahib reached Arcot, his army was ten thousand strong. By this time the little garrison under Clive had been greatly reduced by sickness. There were but one hundred and twenty men, Europeans and sepoys, remaining. For fifty days this little band held out. Hunger pressed them. The sepoys came to their commander, not to complain of their scanty fare, but to propose that all the grain should be given to the Europeans, who required more nourishment than the natives of Asia. The rice water, they said, was enough for themselves. The bravery of the defence astonished the besiegers; and to make things worse, **Morari Rao**, a Mahratta leader, who was at **Ambur**, and who had been watching the struggle, declared he would help the English since he saw they could help themselves, and advanced to their aid with six thousand men. Raja Sahib heard that he was coming and at once resolved to storm the fort. The day selected was during the Muharram. The Muhammadan army, filled with religious enthusiasm and drunk with bhang, rushed on the trenches with scaling ladders in their hand; but they were repulsed at every point. The struggle lasted for an hour. Four hundred of the enemy lay dead The garrison lost but *five* men. When the sun rose next day the Muhammadan army was gone. The siege was raised.

1751 A.D.

170. Clive takes the field.—Reinforcements were immediately sent to Clive from Madras. He effected a junction with Morari Rao, came up with Raja Sahib at Arni, defeated him and got possession of his baggage and cannon. Conjeeveram fell without a blow, and Clive returned to Fort St. David. The object of the campaign had been gained. The siege of Trichinopoly languished. **Muhammad Ali** was acknowledged **Nawab of the Carnatic.**

1751 A.D.

171. Dupleix-fattih-abad destroyed.–In Clive's absence Raja Sahib advanced to Fort St. George and plundered the English residences. Clive hastened from Fort St. David. On the way, he halted at Dupleix-fattih-abad, and levelled the pillar and the town with the ground. Raja Sahib

1752 A.D.

was again defeated and more than one hundred French were killed.

172. The English triumphant.—At this time, Major Lawrence, a very distinguished officer, returned from England and assumed the chief command. Clive accompanied him to Trichinopoly which was still besieged. The recent successes of the English brought them many allies. Morari Rao had already joined them. The Regent of Maisur arrived with fourteen thousand men, and troops were sent by the Raja of Tanjore. The army of Chanda Sahib besieging Trichinopoly was forced to retreat to **Srirangam**, an island formed by branches of the Koleroon and the Kaveri, and was in its turn besieged. Attempts were made by the French at Pondicherry to relieve it, but without success. Chanda Sahib, thereupon, surrendered to the Raja of Tanjore, who promised to spare his life. But no sooner had the Raja got him in his power than he basely broke his promise and put him to death. The French also surrendered. The officers were allowed to go on parole, that is, they were allowed to go free, on a promise that they would not to take up arms again during the war. The soldiers, four hundred in number, were taken to Fort St. David. The English were now triumphant in the Carnatic. But a quarrel soon broke out between them and their allies as to the possession of Trichinopoly. This ended in the Regent of Maisur and Morari Rao going over to the French, and the Raja of Tanjore retiring to his home. Major Lawrence defeated the French at **Bahur**. Clive with a band of raw recruits and five hundred and nine newly-levied sepoys took **Covelong** and **Chingleput** Clive soon afterwards returned to England.

May
1752

CHAPTER V.

WAR IN THE CARNATIC CONTINUED FALL OF DUPLEIX.

1752 A.D.—1756 A.D.

173. War continued.—The war was continued. Trichinopoly was considered the key of the Carnatic. The French strengthened by the Mahrattas and Maisur troops again laid siege to that town. For eighteen months they surrounded the city, and during that time much valour was displayed on both sides. While the contending forces were thus nearly equally balanced in the Carnatic, the French were accomplishing great things in the Deccan. Bussy, as we have seen, had accompanied Salabat Jang to Haidarabad. To Bussy, Salabat Jang owed his throne. Without Bussy he could not keep it. For the support of the French troops he ceded an extensive range of country including the Northern Circars. The French territory now extended from the **Gundlacama** northward to the **pagoda of Jaggannath,** some six hundred miles, and yielded a revenue of eighty lakhs annually. **1752 A.D.**

174. Treaty of Pondicherry.-Fall of Dupleix. —Meanwhile, this war between the French and the English Companies in India led to correspondence between their respective Governments in Europe. Trade was being interfered with. The English Company were desirous of peace. They offered to acknowledge **Salabat Jang,** Viceroy of the Deccan, if the French would acknowledge **Muhammad Ali,** Nawab of the Carnatic. But Dupleix claimed to be Nawab of the Carnatic himself, and he would enter into no agreement without that being acknowledged. Nothing was left for it but an appeal to the home authorities. The English Directors called on the English Government to take up the quarrel as a national one. They blamed Dupleix as being the cause of the war. The French disapproved of Dupleix's policy, which, while it added to his own glory, emptied the treasury of the Company. Dupleix was doomed. A French envoy was

sent out to supersede him and make peace with the English Company. At Pondicherry a treaty was signed,
1755 A.D. by which both sides agreed to give up interfering with native states, and all territory that the French possessed in excess of that held by the English was to be restored. Dupleix returned to France a ruined and broken-hearted man. He survived his disgrace nine years, and died in abject poverty on the 10th November, 1764.

175. The Treaty of Pondicherry broken.—A peace had been concluded. But it was soon broken. The English felt it their duty to assist Muhammad Ali against the Paligars. The French retained possession of the Northern Circars, and, when Salabat Jang tried to throw off the French power, Bussy marched to Haidarabad and put down the opposition.

176. Clive, Governor of Fort St. David.—By this time Clive had returned to India as Governor of Fort St. David. He had been received with the
1756 A.D. greatest enthusiasm in England. The Company had given him a vote of thanks and presented him with a sword set with diamonds. The first war that Clive was engaged in on his return was against a pirate fort named Geriah, situated on the
1756 A.D. Malabar coast. Early in the century, a pirate chief of the name of Angria began to scour the seas, and during the past few years his fleets had become the terror of all merchant vessels. Admiral Watson bombarded the town from the sea. Clive attacked it from the land. The pirate fleet in the harbour was burnt, the fort captured and the booty divided among the soldiers. Clive then proceeded to Madras; but he had been there only a very short time when he was ordered to Calcutta (para. 182).

CHAPTER VI

DECLINE OF THE FRENCH POWER IN THE CARNATIC.

1757 A.D.—1761 A.D.

177. The French and the English at war—Lally.—War broke out again between England and France, and a French fleet under **Count de Lally** arrived at Pondicherry. Within a few weeks Fort St. David fell into Lally's hands, and it was levelled with the ground. Elated with this success, he formed the grand design of driving the English out of all India. Bussy was ordered to leave the Deccan and come to his assistance. Lally intended to seize Madras and then march to Bengal. But the very first step he had taken was ruinous to his cause. No sooner was Bussy's back turned on the Northern Circars than the Raja of Vizianagram revolted and sent to Calcutta for help. Colonel Forde was despatched to his aid. The French were driven out of the Northern Circars. Salabat Jang was thrown into prison by his brother Nizam Ali, who ascended the throne of Haidarabad Count de Lally and Bussy laid siege to Fort St. George. But, an English fleet arriving in the roads, Lally beat a hasty retreat. The English, in turn, took the field under Colonel Coote, routed the French at Vandivash, and made Bussy a prisoner. They then advanced to Pondicherry and invested it. The French garrison held out bravely till January, 1761, when, being reduced to the utmost starvation, Lally and his troops surrendered. The town and fortifications suffered the fate of Fort St. David. Jinji next fell, and with the loss of that fortress, the military glory of the French in the Carnatic was brought to an end.

1758 A.D.

1759 A.D.

1761 A.D.

178. Death of Lally.—The end of Lally was a very sad one. On his return to France, the French, furious at the loss of their possessions in the East, cried out against him. He was tried by the Parliament of France and condemned

to immediate execution. The unhappy man, on hearing his sentence, tried to stab himself to the heart with a pair of compasses. His hand was arrested, and he was taken in a common cart to the place of execution. Thus fell the third great leader of the armies of the French East India Company. The French East India Company ceased to exist in 1769.

1766 A.D.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ENGLISH IN BENGAL. SIRAJ-UD-DAULAH—THE BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA—1756 A.D.

179. Siraj-ud-daulah.—Siraj-ud-daulah succeeded as Nawab of Bengal in 1756. He was not quite twenty years of age, and was cruel and profligate, insolent and self-willed. He hated the English, and at once proceeded to pick a quarrel with them. A rich Hindu, whom he had wished to rob of his wealth, had fled to Fort William. England and France were about to go to war; and Drake, the English Governor, began to repair the fortifications of Fort William. An order was sent by Siraj-ud-daulah to Drake to deliver up the refugee, and to demolish the new fortifications. Drake replied that he could not in honor deliver up a fugitive that had sought his protection, and that he had built no new fortifications, but had only repaired the ramparts against a possible attack from the French.

180. Calcutta captured.—The young Nawab was wild with rage. He plundered the English factory at **Kasimbazar** and took all the English officers prisoners, among whom was **Warren Hastings.** He then marched to Calcutta at the head of fifty thousand men. When the news of Siraj-ud-daulah's approach reached Calcutta, the English were panic-stricken. The women and children were quickly put on board the English vessels and taken two miles down the river. The Governor and the military commander followed them. The soldiers and officers, being thus deserted by their commander, elected Mr. Holwell, a civilian, as their leader, and they resolved to

defend the Fort to the last. For forty-eight hours they held out, when the soldiers, worn out with heat and watching, broke into the arrack stores and got drunk. Siraj-ud-daulah, thereupon, entered the fort in triumph and took the whole garrison prisoners.

181. The Black Hole of Calcutta.—The prisoners were led to the common dungeon of the fort. It was a room, not eighteen feet square, with only two small windows with iron bars—a room henceforth to be known as the **Black Hole of Calcutta.** Into this small apartment, on a hot June evening, *one hundred and forty-six* human beings were forced at the point of the bayonet, and the door was shut. On the morrow, the ghastly forms of only *twenty-two men* and *one woman* crawled out of that den into the light of a new day The remaining *one hundred and twenty-three* were corpses. The question as to whether Siraj-ud-daulah was to blame for this awful tragedy has been much discussed The probability is that he was not. The prisoners had been left in the charge of the officers. He himself had gone to sleep and no one dared awake him. But next morning, when the survivors were brought to him, he was utterly indifferent, and seemed only anxious to discover where the English had secreted their treasure. Holwell and four others were sent off to Murshidabad in chains. Siraj-ud-daulah returned exultant to his capital, and despatched a most glowing account of his victory to the emperor at Delhi.

1756 A.D.

CHAPTER XIII.

CLIVE RECOVERS CALCUTTA—VENGEANCE.

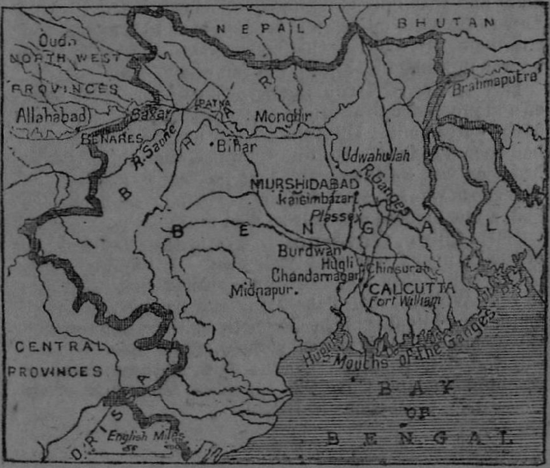
1756 A.D.—1757 A.D.

182. Clive recovers Calcutta.—The news of the tragedy of the Black Hole reached Madras in August, and a cry for vengeance arose from every lip. The Madras Government at once resolved to send an expedition into Bengal; and, in October, **Clive** and **Watson** set sail with nine hundred English infantry and fifteen hundred sepoys. Clive was put at the head of the army. Watson

commanded the navy. It was December before the fleet reached the Hugli. Clive landed his forces, captured **Budge-budge**, routed the garrison that Siraj-ud-daulah had left in **Fort William**, recovered **Calcutta** and stormed and plundered **Hugli**. Siraj-ud-daulah sent entreaties to Bussy to come to his aid. Clive and Watson heard of this. They attacked **Chandarnagar**, the French settlement in Bengal, captured it and took five hundred European troops prisoners.

183. Conspiracy against Siraj-ud-daulah.—The vices of Siraj-ud-daulah had, meanwhile, turned all classes of his subjects against him. A conspiracy was formed to dethrone him. Communication was opened between the conspirators and Clive, and the latter readily fell in with the scheme. An agreement was come to, by which Clive promised to assist the conspirators, and, in return, **Mir Jafer**, the Commander-in-Chief, who was to be proclaimed Nawab, was to give the English army, navy and civil servants, compensation for their services. The plot was laid. But time was needed to make the necessary preparations for successfully carrying it out. Correspondence between the English and the Nawab was carried on through one, **Umachand**, a crafty Bengali merchant, who had suffered considerable loss on the capture of Calcutta by the Nawab. Umachand suddenly threatened to make known the whole conspiracy unless he were promised thirty lakhs of rupees, and insisted that this should be inserted in the treaty made between the English and the conspirators. Clive felt that Umachand did not deserve to get the money; but were Umachand to go to the Nawab and reveal what he knew, all would be lost. Clive, therefore, proposed that the money should be promised him, but at the same time resolved that he should never receive it Two treaties were drawn up, one on white paper, the other on red. In the former no mention was made of Umachand; while the latter, which was fictitious and the one to be shown him, contained the stipulation demanded by him. A new difficulty arose. Watson would not sign the false document and Umachand would detect the absence of Watson's name. Clive was not to be baffled. To his disgrace he forged Watson's signature.

184. War declared.—All was now ready for action. Clive declared war and marched to Kasimbazar. Siraj-ud-daulah and Mir Jafar advanced to Plassey. It had been arranged that Mir Jafar should bring over his division of the army to Clive's side. Clive waited, sent messages to Mir Jafar, but Mir Jafar never came. Clive was placed in a most difficult situation. His army consisted of three thousand men, only seven hundred and fifty of whom were British, with nine pieces of artillery. The army of the Nawab consisted of fifty thousand infantry, eighteen thousand cavalry, with fifty pieces of artillery. Clive called a *council of war*, and was one in a majority that voted not to engage in battle. He subsequently retired into a grove, and after an hour's reflection, came to the conclusion that Colonel Coote (para. 177), who had declared himself in favour of engaging the enemy, was right.



185. Battle of Plassey.—Next day Clive crossed the river and marched for Plassey. The Nawab's army

was well covered by a grove and remained on the defensive.
1757 A.D. His cannon did little injury, while Clive's artillery was very effective and several of the Nawab's chief officers were killed. Mir Jafar at last separated his troops from the Nawab. Clive immediately charged. The enemy broke and fled in the utmost confusion. Siraj-ud-daulah with two thousand horse retreated with all possible speed to Murshidabad. The tents, baggage and cannon of the enemy fell into the hands of the victors, whose loss in this memorable battle amounted to only twenty-two killed and fifty wounded.

186. Death of Siraj-ud-daulah.—Clive took no notice of the weak part Mir Jafar had played; but saluted him **Nawab of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.** Mir Jafar proceeded to Murshidabad. On his arrival there, Siraj-ud-daulah let himself down from a window of his palace at night and with only two attendants sailed up the river for Patna. He was captured and brought back to Murshidabad, and there, in a room in what had once been his own palace, he was murdered by Miran, the son of Mir Jafar.

187. Fate of Umachand.—Meanwhile Clive arrived and proceeded to arrange for the settlement of the terms of the agreement. **Umachand** was now to learn how he had been deceived. He was informed that the paper he had seen was worthless, and that he was to get nothing. The shock was too much for him. He fell back insensible, and, a few months afterwards, died an imbecile.

188. Clive, Governor of Bengal.—The treasury of the Company was soon well filled. A hundred boats, laden with eighty lakhs of rupees, sailed down the river to Fort William, with flags flying and trumpets blowing; and all the servants of the Company received rich rewards. Clive himself afterwards acknowledged that he had received sixteen lakhs. On the news of those successes reaching England, Clive was appointed **Governor** of the Company's possessions in Bengal.

CHAPTER IX.

MIR JAFAR.

1756 A.D.—1760 A.D.

189. Mir Jafar—1756 A.D.-1760 A.D.—Mir Jafar was not left in undisturbed possession of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. In 1758 the eldest son of the great Mughal, afterwards Shah Alam II., claimed those provinces, and being supported by **Suja-ud-daulah, Nawab of Oudh,** invested **Patna.** Mir Jafar, in terror, wished to buy them off, but **Ram Narayan,** the Governor, held out till Clive advanced with his small army, when the besiegers fled. Great was the joy of Mir Jafar. In gratitude he bestowed on Clive, in the name of Jaghir, the quit-rent due by the Company for the territory around Calcutta, estimated at an annual value of about three lakhs.

190. The Dutch defeated.—The gratitude of Mir Jafar did not last long. He felt how insecure his position was. The English had raised him to power. They might take the power from him. He intrigued with the Dutch. They sent to their settlements in the East Indies for troops. Seven large ships soon arrived in the Hughli from Java, with one thousand five hundred men on board. Clive attacked them by land and sea, defeated them, and forced the chief of the Dutch settlement of Chinsurah to engage to keep no more armed men than were necessary to serve as police. Three months after this Clive sailed for England (1760).

1759 A.D.

191. Patna besieged.—Scarcely had Clive turned his back on India when Shah Alam II., assisted by the Nawab of Oudh, laid claim to the province of **Bihar** and advanced to **Patna. Ram Narayan,** who had defended the city when previously attacked, again proved true to the English, and held the town. Captain Knox with one thousand two hundred sepoys hurried from **Burdwan** to its relief. Patna was three hundred miles distant from Burdwan. But in thirteen days Knox came up with the besieging army and defeated it. He next crossed the river and attacked the **Nawab of Parnia,** who had come to assist Shah Alam with thirty thousand men. The natives, struck with the daring of Knox's little army, crowded the

walls of Patna to witness the issue of the battle. The struggle continued for six hours and ended in the total defeat of the enemy.

192. Mir Jafar deposed.—It was now quite clear to the English that Mir Jafar was unfit to rule. He had lost the little reason he ever possessed, and had become an imbecile. **Vansittart**, who had succeeded Clive as Governor, proceeded to Murshidabad, deposed Mir Jafar and conducted him for safety to Calcutta. **Mir Kasim**, the old man's son-in-law, was appointed Nawab. Mir Kasim in return made over to the Company the revenues of **Burdwan, Midnapur** and **Chittagong**, which at that time furnished one-third of the revenue of Bengal. He also promised to pay the Company the debts due to them by Mir Jafar.

CHAPTER X.

MIR KASIM.

1760 A.D.—1765 A.D.

193. Mir Kasim—1760 A.D.—1765 A.D.—Mir Kasim was a man of a very different stamp from his father-in-law. He proceeded at once to dismiss the worthless favourites that had surrounded Mir Jafar, and to collect all arrears of rent. He revised the land assessment, abolished a host of useless and expensive offices, and called on the provincial officers to give up the wealth they had amassed by extortion and plunder. One of the first of those officers to be attacked was Ram Narayan, the defender of Patna, whom the English had promised to protect from his enemies. Charges were trumped up against him. Ram Narayan appealed to Calcutta. But the majority of the council sided with Mir Kasim. The brave Ram Narayan was at once robbed of the little wealth he possessed, and, when it was found he had little treasure to give, he was put to death. No act could tend more to weaken the influence of the English in India than this. Their friends could no longer trust them. Their enemies became emboldened, and, amongst the latter, Mir Kasim himself was soon enrolled.

194. Monghir made the Capital.—Mir Kasim resolved to be Nawab in reality as well as in name. He

removed the seat of his Government from Murshidabad to Monghir, a distance of three hundred and twenty miles from Calcutta. Defence works soon sprang up around the city. An arsenal was built within the walls, and cannon and muskets of a superior kind were manufactured. Within three years Mir Kasim had at his command fifteen thousand cavalry and twenty-five thousand infantry, trained for the most part by men who had deserted from the Company's service. He was no less active in improving and strengthening his Government.

195. Mir Kasim quarrels with the Calcutta Council.—Under an old imperial firman, the merchandise of the Company was allowed to pass up and down the country duty free, by virtue of a *permit*, signed by the President. The agents of the Company also carried on private trade, and after the battle of Plassey they not only demanded permits for their own use, but they began to sell permits to the natives. Trade was thus disorganized and the Nawab was robbed of his revenues. Mir Kasim proposed to levy a duty of nine per cent. on the merchandise of the Company's servants; the duty his own subjects had to bear being about twenty-five per cent. The Council at Calcutta would not listen to such a proposal. Mir Kasim, thereupon, removed all transit duties whatever, and thereby gave his own subjects equal privileges with the English. When the news of this reached Calcutta, the rage of the Councillors knew no bounds. They called on the Nawab to annul his decree. The Nawab refused. Both sides prepared for war. The war was begun by Ellis, the Company's agent at Patna, suddenly attacking and capturing that city. When Mir Kasim heard of this he ordered the capture of every Englishman in Bengal; and Mr. Amyatt, a member of the Council, was killed by the Nawab's officers. **1763 A.D.** Patna was recovered by Mir Kasim. Ellis and many other Englishmen were made prisoners. On the other hand the English brought Mir Jafar out of his place of retirement and reinstated him on the throne.

196. Massacre of Patna.—An army of six hundred and fifty Europeans and one thousand two hundred sepoys left Calcutta, and captured Murshidabad. They came up

with Mir Kasim's army at **Geriah.** **Never did troops fight** better than those of the Nawab; but, in the end, the Europeans and sepoys had the best of it, and the Nawab's army retreated, leaving all their guns and stores behind them. The Nawab was again defeated at **Udwanullah**, and he fled to Patna. **Monghir** next fell. Mir Kasim, wild with rage, informed the English if they advanced further, he would put Ellis and the other prisoners to death. But Ellis and his companions were willing to meet

1763 A.D. their doom. The English army advanced. Mir Kasim ordered the prisoners to be slaughtered. His officers refused. A fitting instrument was found in one, Walter Reinhardt, better known by his nickname **Sumru.** This ruffian led the soldiers to the prison, and ordered them to fire on the prisoners. The latter seized bottles, chairs, anything they could lay their hands on, and fought with the energy of despair. But not a single person escaped. One hundred and fifty defenceless soldiers, civilians and women lay dead in that prison-house on that woeful day.

197. Mir Kasim, a fugitive.—The massacre of Patna thrilled with horror the whole British empire, and vengeance was the cry. Within a month Patna was stormed and taken, and Mir Kasim and Sumru were fugitives at the court of the Nawab of Oudh.

198. First Sepoy mutiny.—The forces that had advanced to the relief of Patna had expected to be liberally rewarded for their services. They received only their ordinary pay. The English troops, thereupon, threatened to desert to the enemy. An entire battalion of sepoys actually went off. Major **Munro**, who had arrived with reinforcements, went after the deserters, took them prisoners and blew several of them from the guns. The mutiny was quelled.

199. Battle of Baxar.—Shuja-ud-daulah, accompanied by Shah Alam II., advanced into Bihar.

1764 A.D. Munro marched against them. The two armies met at **Baxar.** The allies were utterly defeated. Shuja-ud-daulah fled into the **Rohilla** country, and Shah Alam II. entered the English camp. By the battle of Baxar the power of the Nawab of Oudh was

broken, and the English became the greatest power in India. Shuja-ud-daulah did once more take the field. But at Korah he was again defeated, 1765 A.D. and, seeing that his cause was hopeless, he entered the camp of the English and threw himself on their mercy.

CHAPTER XI.

CLIVE'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION.

1765 A.D.—1767 A.D.

200. Clive returns to India.—On the day the battle of Korah was fought, Clive arrived in Calcutta. In England he had been received with the greatest enthusiasm. He had been raised to the peerage. The great Lord Chatham had spoken of him as a 'heaven-born General.' He had entered Parliament. Reports of the disgraceful proceedings of the Company's servants in Bengal reached England. All eyes were turned to Clive as the only man fitted to restore order. He was appointed Governor and Commander-in-Chief in Bengal, and was entrusted with independent powers.

201. Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.—Clive proceeded to Allahabad, where Shah Alam and Shuja-ud-daulah were prisoners in the English camp. To Shuja-ud-daulah he restored most of his provinces. Allahabad and Korah were given to Shah Alam, who conferred on the English the *Diwani*, *i.e.*, (the right of collecting the revenue) of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa in return for a yearly payment of twenty-six lakhs, thus giving them a legal right to administer provinces that had been actually under their control for some time. The Nawab of Bengal, a son of Mir Jafar, who had been placed on the throne by the Company's servants, was pensioned, and his descendants still live at Murshidabad.

202. Clive reforms the Civil Service.—The servants of the Company had hitherto been allowed to trade on their own account and to receive presents from the natives. Clive forbade them to do so, and made each

one sign an engagement to that effect. The civilians were very angry. They tried to resist Clive, but in vain. His strong will won the day. They had to yield. Clive, however, increased their salaries, and set apart the revenue derived from the monopoly of salt, to meet this extra charge to the Company.

203. Clive reforms the Military Service.—Clive next turned his attention to the army. The troops had been accustomed to receive what was called "double batta," when on service. This was nominally a subsistence allowance, but the amount was excessive and Clive proceeded to stop it. The officers mutinied. Two hundred resolved to resign in one day. As each officer resigned he was arrested. Clive sent to Madras for others to fill their places. Within a fortnight the mutiny was quelled and the ringleaders were punished.

204. Clive returns to England.—Clive had now accomplished the work he had been sent out to do. He set sail from India for the last time early in

Jan. **1767**

the year 1767, a poorer man than when he returned to it eighteen months before. At home the servants of the Company, civil and military, from whose greed he had rescued Bengal, persecuted him with the utmost hatred: but the Court of Directors passed a resolution, "that he had rendered meritorious service to his country." Clive died in 1774.

CHAPTER XII.

RISE OF HAIDAR ALI. THE FIRST MAISUR WAR.

1766 A.D.—1769 A.D.

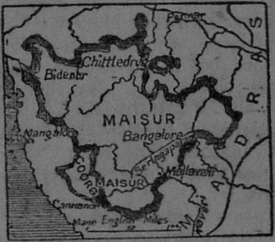
205. Haidar Ali.—Haidar Ali who now sat on the throne of Maisur, was a Muhammadan soldier of fortune. Having gathered together a band of lawless men,

1767 A.D.

in the same manner as Sivaji had formerly done, he for a time lived by plunder. Gradually, by tricks and treachery, he raised himself to the

throne of Maisur. He now began to intrigue with the French, and the English entered into an alliance with Nizam Ali and the Mahrattas against him.

206. The first Maisur war.—Haidar knew the enemies he had to deal with. He quickly bought off the Mahrattas; and Nizam Ali was soon induced to turn his arms against the very force that had been sent from Madras to his aid. Fortunately, the English army was commanded by Colonel Smith, a very distinguished officer. Colonel Smith at once retreated. Haidar at the head of seventy thousand men followed. At **Changama** he attacked Smith, but was repulsed. Smith, still closely followed by Haidar, continued his retreat until he arrived at **Trinomali.** At the same time, Tippu, son of Haidar Ali, with five thousand horse, carried fire and sword to the gates of Fort St. George. The English army at Trinomali was closely besieged and reduced to extremities from want of provisions. Famine might have done its work and given the confederates a victory, but they would not wait its slow operation. Confident in their superior numbers, they made an attack. Colonel Smith, by an able movement of his troops, and by the skilful way in which he used his artillery, gained a complete victory. A strange occurrence happened in connection with the pursuit. Haidar, feeling certain of success, had brought the ladies of his zenana mounted on elephants to witness the battle. They had been drawn up in a line in the rear, and now that the battle was lost, orders were sent for them to retreat from the field. But one of the ladies exclaimed, "This elephant has not been instructed so to turn, he *follows* the standard of the empire!" and though the bullets were flying around her, she refused to move before the flag had passed. Nizam



26th Sept. 1767 A.D.

Nov. 1767 A.D.

Ali at once deserted his new ally, made peace with the English, and confirmed to them the grant of the Northern Circars. Haidar next laid siege to Ambur. But Colonel Smith, coming to its aid, defeated the besieging army outside the fort.

207. Maisur invaded.—Elated with this success, the Madras Government resolved to invade Maisur. One army was sent against Bangalore. Another entered the fertile country lying along the foot of the Ghats. The latter soon accomplished its object. All the country between **Dindigul, Palghat** and **Vaniambady** fell into its hands. The Bombay Government likewise sent troops to the west coast; and **Mangalore, Onore** and other places were taken. Haidar had thus in a very short time lost one-half of his possessions.

208. Haidar victorious.—Haidar at first put forth all his strength to recover his territory in the west, and was wholly successful. He next proceeded to Bangalore, fell upon the English by surprise, and put them to rout. He then marched into the low country and recovered the whole of his lost possessions.

209. Treaty of Madras.—Haidar formed the daring resolve of attacking Madras. With six thousand cavalry and two hundred picked infantry, he made the wonderful march of one hundred and thirty miles in less than four days, and suddenly appeared within five miles of that city. The Madras Council were panic-stricken. They concluded a peace with Haidar, by which both sides were allowed to retain the possessions they had held before the war, and they mutually engaged to assist each other against their enemies.

1769 A.D.

CHAPTER XIII.

BENGAL: WARREN HASTINGS.

1767 A.D.—1774 A.D.

210. Double Government in Bengal.—The Company's affairs in Bengal had again fallen into a bad way. The rich provinces of Bengal and Bihar had been granted to Clive in 1765 and had been placed under a **double government.**—(1) the administration of justice and the col-

lection of the revenue were left in the hands of native governors and agents,—(2) the English garrisoned the country. The native officials preyed upon the people. The agents of the Company fell into their old ways, and quickly amassed fortunes, while the sums paid into the Company's treasury became smaller and smaller. Matters were brought to a climax in 1771 A famine and pestilence visited Bengal, and the people died off in hundreds of thousands. Reports reached England, that the officials were holding back the rice in order to sell it at famine prices. The Directors were indignant. They determined on introducing radical reforms into the administration, and to this end appointed **Warren Hastings** Governor of Bengal.

1771 A.D.

211. Reforms.—Hastings proceeded at once to take the administration of the country out of the hands of the natives. **English Collectors** were appointed over districts, and in the civil and criminal courts of their districts, they were made supreme. Two courts of appeal were established at Calcutta, which was now made the **Capital**. A simple code of Hindu and Muhammadan law for the regulation of the courts was drawn up Many local taxes that pressed heavily on the people were abolished. The inland duties were revised, and reduced to a uniform level.

1772 A.D.

212. State of affairs in Hindustan.—Shah Alam II. had left the English protection and gone off with Sindia to **Delhi**. The Mahrattas had over-run **Rohilkhand** (para. 216). The Rohillas had promised to pay the Nawab of Oudh forty lakhs of rupees for his protection. In 1773, the Mahrattas returned home. The Nawab claimed the forty lakhs, and the Rohillas denied they had made such a promise. These circumstances gave Hastings a splendid opportunity of replenishing the Company's treasury.

213. Hastings' foreign policy.—Hastings announced that Shah Alam, by leaving the English protection, had forfeited his claim to the annual grant of twenty-six lakhs given to him by Clive for the *Diwani* of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa (para. 201). **Korah** and **Allahabad** had also to be disposed of. Hastings and Shuja-ud-daulah met at Benares, and entered into a treaty, by which

Korah and Allahabad were given to the **Nawab**, and the Company received fifty lakhs of rupees. Hastings likewise agreed to furnish a brigade to invade Rohilkhand, in return for which the Company were to receive
1774 A.D. an additional forty lakhs of rupees at the end of the campaign. The fortress of **Chunar on** the Ganges was likewise ceded to the Company.

214. Rohilkhand subdued.—Colonel Champion marched with the English brigade into Rohilkhand, and near **Katra** put to rout forty thousand Rohillas. So long as the battle remained doubtful, Shuja-ud-daulah's troops kept at a safe distance. But when the Rohillas broke and fled, they rushed in and plundered the camp. The disciplined English troops, looking with disgust on their worthless allies, said to each other, "We have the honour of the day and these villains have the profit." The Nawab's troops were then let loose over the country to murder, plunder and commit every species of atrocity. Rohilkhand was subdued, and from eighteen to twenty thousand Rohillas were forced to leave the country. It was unfortunate for the good name of Hastings and the honour of England, that Hastings should have had as allies such monsters of cruelty. But Hastings did all he could to prevent their barbarities.

215. Results of Hastings' rule.—During those two years Hastings had proved himself to be possessed of the greatest administrative ability. He had reduced taxation, and yet, in addition to a crore of rupees received in cash, he had added forty-five lakhs to the annual income of the Company. The law courts had been purified. Trade had revived, and millions of people had obtained security in their possessions, and been made contented, peaceful and happy.

Meanwhile the **Regulating Act** had been
1773 A.D. passed in England, which placed India under a new form of government, with Warren Hastings as **Governor-General** (para. 236).

CHAPTER XIV.

THE MAHRATTAS.

FROM THE THIRD BATTLE OF PANIPAT TO THE TREATY OF SALBAI.

1761 A.D.—1782 A.D.

THE FIRST MAHRATTA WAR.

216. Madu Rao—Fourth Peshwa—1761 A.D.—1772 A.D.—On the death of Balaji Baji Rao (para. 154), his son Madu Rao was at once raised to the office of Peshwa. During his reign the Mahratta power recovered much of its lost prestige in Hindustan. **Rohilkhand** was over-run by a large army under **Sindia**. Shah Alam II., the nominal Emperor of Delhi, left the English protection for that of the Mahrattas, and the latter seized all that remained of the power of the once mighty Mughal. Madu Rao also attacked Haidar Ali. And Haidar, defeated at every point, was forced to restore to the Mahrattas a large extent of territory, and pay a large sum of money as the price of peace. Madu Rao died in 1772.

217 Dispute succession.—Narayana Rao succeeded Madu Rao. He was murdered within a year after he assumed office, and a dispute arose as to the succession between **Raganath Rao**, uncle of the murdered Peshwa, and the celebrated **Nana Farnavis**, who was appointed head of a Council of Regency that supported the claims of an infant child of Narayana Rao.

218. Treaty of Surat.—Raganath Rao applied to the English at Bombay for help. The English were desirous of acquiring territory, and when Raganath Rao offered to give them Salsette and Bassein, as also the territory and revenue of Broach, the Bombay Government concluded a treaty at Surat, and prepared to assist in placing Raganath Rao on the throne. **1775 A.D.**

219. Treaty of Purandhar.—The treaty of Surat was not approved of by the Supreme Government at

Calcutta. It, on the other hand, entered into a treaty with Nana Farnavis and the Council of Regency, by which only **Salsette** was given to the English, and the cause of Raganath Rao was abandoned.

1776 A.D.

220. The first Mahratta War—1778 A.D.—1782 A.D.—The Directors in England approved of the treaty of Surat and condemned that of Purandhar. Nana Farnavis shortly thereafter received a Frenchman at his court, furnished with presents from the King of France. As England was on the eve of a war with that country, Warren Hastings, the Governor-General, resolved on war, ostensibly to place Raganath Rao on the throne, but in reality to defeat the designs of the **French**. This war is known as the first **Mahratta War**.

221. Convention of Wargam.—The Bombay Government resolved not to wait for the force that Hastings had despatched from Bengal, but to invade the Mahratta country at once, and have all the glory of placing Raganath Rao on the throne. The army left Bombay in November 1778, and early in January had advanced to within eighteen miles of Puna. Meanwhile Sindia had arrived there. At the head of thousands of Mahratta horse, he came up with the British at **Talegaon**. The Bombay army consisted of only two thousand six hundred English troops. When Colonel Cockburn saw the hordes of Mahrattas pressing down upon him he ordered a retreat. The result was disastrous. No sooner had the retreat begun than clouds of Mahrattas came sweeping on and attacked the rear. But Captain **Hartley** so gallantly withstood the repeated charges of the Mahrattas, that they were unable to break the English line. The retreating army reached Wargam. There a convention was signed, by which all the possessions the English had received from the Mahrattas were to be restored.

1778 A.D.

1779 A.D.

222. The war renewed.—The utmost indignation was felt both in India and in England at this convention. The persons who concluded the peace were dismissed the service. The Governor and the Court of Directors annulled the treaty. War was resumed, Colonel **Goddard** crossed the Tapti, and

1780 A.D.

carried **Ahmadabad**, the capital of **Gujarat**, by storm. Towards the end of the year **Bassein** was captured, and the whole combined force of the Mahrattas, that came to the relief of that town, was defeated by Hartley.

While the English armies were thus successful, and were recovering somewhat of their lost reputation, **Haidar Ali of Maisur** formed an alliance with the Nizam and the Mahrattas (para. 228). Goddard, thinking to overawe Nana Farnavis, marched with six thousand men into the Konkan and threatened Puna. But the Mahrattas laid waste the country, harassed Goddard's rear, cut off his convoys and intercepted his baggage, so that it was with the utmost difficulty he made good his retreat to Bombay. **11th Dec.**

223. Gwalior taken.—Meanwhile, Hastings resolved to carry the war into the very heart of India. Captain Popham with two thousand four hundred men was sent across the Jumna. The fort of **Lahor** was taken by storm. **Gwalior**, a very strong fortress, was next attacked. In the most brilliant way, Popham, under cover of night, mounted the rocks and scaled the walls. Before morning, this fortress, hitherto considered impregnable, was in his hands. Another army was sent into Malwa, and Sindia, taken by surprise, was defeated with great loss.

224. Treaty of Salbai.—Sindia now thought it wise to make friends with the English. Through his mediation a peace was concluded at **Salbai**, by which the territories were fixed as in the treaty of Purandhar. All **Europeans** except Portuguese were to be excluded from the Mahratta country, and Haidar was to be compelled to relinquish the territories he had recently taken from the English and the Nawab of Arcot. The treaty is known as the **Treaty of Salbai**. **1782 A.D.**

CHAPTER XV.

SECOND MAISUR WAR.

1780 A.D.—1784 A.D.

225. Scarcely had Haidar Ali signed the treaty of Madras (para. 209), when the Mahrattas invaded his territories in overwhelming numbers. By that treaty the English and Haidar had agreed mutually to assist each other against their enemies. Haidar, therefore, applied to the English for aid against the invaders. But the English refused to help him, and he was forced to cede to the Mahrattas a great part of his northern possessions. This desertion of him in a time of difficulty rankèd in Haidar's mind, and for several years he waited for a fitting opportunity to take his revenge.

226. Haidar recovers his lost territories.—Madu Rao died in 1772, and Haidar at once took advantage of the disorders at Puna (para. 217) to recover his lost possessions. **Coorg** was subdued. **Calicut** fell into his hands without a blow. All the territories he had had ceded to the Mahrattas were recovered. In **1778**, his kingdom extended as far north as the **Krishna**.

227. Second Maisur War.—In this year, 1778, the first Mahratta war broke out (para. 220). England also went to war with France. **Mahe, on the west coast, was a** French possession. But the country around Mahé belonged to Haidar; and when the English advanced and captured that town, Haidar was very angry. The English had been very unsuccessful in the first Mahratta war. Now was Haidar's time to take revenge for their desertion of him.

228. Haidar invades the Carnatic.—Haidar entered into an alliance with the Mahrattas and Nizam Ali. With ninety thousand men, the finest army that had ever been seen in Southern India, he burst

1780 A.D. through the pass of Changama, and proceeded to lay waste the Carnatic. The Governor and Council of Fort St. George were ill-qualified to meet such an emergency. News had reached them that Haidar was preparing an army for the invasion of the Carnatic. But they would not believe it. Nor were any

preparations made against such a possible contingency, until dark columns of smoke mingled with flame, were seen within a few miles of Madras.

Sir Hector Munro, the hero of Baxar (para. 199), was Commander-in-Chief with five thousand men; and Colonel Baillie with two thousand eight hundred men was on his way to occupy Gantur. It was desirable that those two armies should be united. But Haidar threw his army between them, and at **Pollilor** Baillie's force was cut to pieces. Baillie himself and two hundred Europeans were taken prisoners and sent to Seringapatam, where they were treated with the greatest cruelty. **Haidar** next captured **Vellore.**

229. Hastings sends re-inforcements.—Never was the English power in India in greater danger of being overthrown than now. But the genius of Hastings saved the empire. When the news of Baillie's defeat reached Calcutta, Sir Eyre Coote was at once sent to Madras by sea with five hundred and sixty European troops, while Colonel Pearce with an army of sepoys was ordered to march to the scene of danger, a distance of about seven hundred miles. Pearce had to march through Bhonsle's territories; and Bhonsle was as yet an enemy. But before the English army reached Barar, Hastings, by a large bribe, had succeeded in withdrawing Bhonsle from the Puna confederacy, and when Pearce entered his territories, instead of meeting with opposition, he found himself strengthened by two thousand Mahratta horse.

230. Battle of Porto Novo.—When Sir Eyre Coote landed at Madras, Vandivash, the scene of his former victory over Bussy (para. 177), was besieged, and was being defended by a young lieutenant, named **Flint,** with all the courage and skill of a second Clive. Coote hastened to Flint's relief, and, at the news of his approach, the enemy retreated. **1781 A.D.**

Coote next tried to take the strongly fortified pagoda of **Chillambaram,** but failed. While resting his troops at **Porto Novo,** he heard that Haidar had advanced with an army of ten times the number of his, to prevent his return to Cuddalore. Nothing could have suited Coote better. With the utmost skill he led his men to the attack, and,

after six hours' fighting carried all before him. When Haidar, who was standing on an eminence, saw his army flying, he could scarcely believe his eyes: nor could he be moved from the spot, till his attendants by force mounted him on a swift horse, which carried him quickly out of danger.

231. Second battle of Pollilor.—Pearce had, meanwhile, advanced with his army from Bengal, and Coote joined him at Pulicat. Haidar had defeated Baillie the year before at Pollilor. Having a superstitious belief in the day that battle was won being for him a lucky day, he attacked Coote and Pearce at the same place and on the same day of the year; but with a very different result. The English soldiers, marching over the unburied bones of their countrymen that had fallen the year before, drove the enemy before them. These successes were followed up by a great victory at Sholinger (Sept. 1781). The war continued with varying success. Near the Koleroon the English sustained a great disaster. Colonel Braithwaite allowed himself to be surrounded by Tippu, and was forced to surrender. On the other hand, the garrison at Tellicherry issued from their defences, and captured twelve hundred of Haidar's troops together with their stores, guns and ammunition. Coorg and Malabar, thereupon, rose against Haidar.

1781 A.D.

232. Battle of Arni.—Meanwhile, Hastings had succeeded in concluding the treaty of Salbai with the Mahrattas. The Mahrattas were thus withdrawn from the side of Haidar. Haidar began to feel very anxious as to his future, and even meditated withdrawing from the Carnatic, when a French fleet arrived with three thousand men. Strengthened by these, Haidar again took the field; but at Arni, he and the French were defeated.

1782 A.D.

233. Character of Haidar.—Of the many Indian adventurers we read of, Haidar Ali was one of the most remarkable. Unable to write or read, with no influence derived from birth, he worked his way to the throne of an important kingdom, and governed it with great ability and political wisdom, though without any regard to honour, or principle, or even humanity. He died on the 7th December

1782, weary, as he said, of waging war "with a nation whom he might have made his friends, but whom the defeat of many Baillies and Braithwaites would never destroy."

234. Tippu Sultan.—Tippu was on the west coast when the news of his father's death reached him. He at once hastened to Seringapatam, where he was proclaimed sovereign. The war was continued. Tippu marched into the west coast and captured **Bednor** and **Mangalore**, and took the garrisons prisoners. The Governor of Madras then sued for peace. Tippu's pride was gratified. What more could he wish for than that the English should come to him as suppliants. A treaty was concluded by which each side retained its former possessions. This treaty is known as the **Treaty of Mangalore**. **1784 A.D.**

235. War with the Dutch.—During this period war broke out between England and Holland. Sir Hector Munro was immediately sent against Negapatam, the chief Dutch settlement. He captured it, as also **Trincomali** in Ceylon, and other Dutch possessions. These were finally made over to the English by the peace of **Versailles in 1783.** **1781 A.D.**

CHAPTER XVI.

THE FIRST GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF BRITISH INDIA, WARREN HASTINGS.

1774 A.D.—1785 A.D.

236. The Regulating Act.—The Regulating Act was passed by the English Parliament in 1773 and came into force in India in 1774. By this Act the Governor of Bengal was made Governor-General, and, assisted by a Council of four Members, was entrusted with supreme power over all the British possessions in India. A Supreme Court of Justice was established at Calcutta, presided over by a Chief Justice and other three Judges, with powers independent of the Governor-General in Council. Warren Hastings was accordingly appointed the *first*

Governor-General. The *first* Members of Council were **Mr. Barwell, Mr. Francis, General Clavering** and **Colonel Monson.** The last three were sent out from England. The first Chief Justice was **Sir Elijah Impey.**

237. Dissensions in the Council.—No sooner had the three councillors from England taken their seats at the Council table, than they began to show an intense hatred towards Hastings. They opposed all his measures, and, as each Councillor had a vote in Council, the three from England could always form a majority, and thus for two years the Governor-General was almost powerless. The first cause of dispute had reference to the treaty of Benares. The majority in the council, led by Francis, called on Hastings to produce all letters, public and private, that had passed between him and his agent at Oudh. Hastings refused. They recalled Hastings' agent, and ordered the brigade sent into Rohilkhand to be withdrawn. Shuja-ud-daulah died the following year, and was succeeded by his young son **Asaf-ud-daulah.** Francis immediately pressed down upon him, and forced him to sign a treaty, by which he surrendered to the Company the revenues of Benares, and bound himself to pay the English the debts due by his father. At the same time, Francis compelled him to pay to his father's widow almost the whole of two crores of rupees which his father had left in the treasury. Against such harsh proceedings Hastings protested, but in vain.

1775 A.D.

238. Nundkumar.—The power of Hastings was apparently gone. The natives were not slow to discover this. The majority in the Council were ready to listen to any tales against the Governor-General, and hundreds of informers came forward to blast the fair name of Hastings. Chief amongst these was a Brahman, named **Nundkumar.** He accused Hastings of having taken bribes from the wife of the late Mir Jafar. Francis brought the charge against Hastings in the Council. Hastings treated it with scorn, denied the right of his colleagues to sit as his judges, and left the council, followed by Barwell. Suddenly the news ran through Calcutta that Nundkumar had been arrested on a charge of forgery, and cast as a common felon into the common gaol. The four judges of the High Court

tried the case. The jury returned a unanimous **verdict** of guilty, and Nundkumar was sentenced to be hanged. The fate of Nundkumar struck terror into all the natives, and during the rest of Hastings' rule in India, no person was daring enough to raise his voice **1776**
against him. Monson died in 1776. Hastings **A.D.**
was thereby enabled to secure a majority in Council, and to acquire the power which he alone at that time had the ability to use for the good of the country.

CHAPTER XVII.

WARREN HASTINGS.

1774 A.D.—1785 A.D.

239. Chait Singh.—The expenses of the Mahratta and Maisur wars were enormous, and Warren Hastings was forced to use every means in his power to procure money. He first turned to **Chait Singh**, the Raja of Benares. In 1771, as we have seen, **Asaf-ud-daulah** had transferred the right of collecting the revenue of this Zemindari to the English. Chait Singh had been appointed Raja, as a vassal of the Company, and was bound to aid them with men and money when called on to do so. Hastings demanded five lakhs of rupees and two thousand horse. But Chait Singh pleaded poverty, and delayed to send the men or the money. Hastings proceeded to Benares to enforce his demand, and Chait Singh was put under arrest. He was exceedingly popular with his subjects. They rose in arms and attacked the sepoys that had been placed as a guard over their Raja. The sepoys had forgotten to bring their ammunition with them and they were cut to pieces. During the **1780**
tumult, the Raja quietly slipped out of the palace, **A.D.**
and escaped to **Ramnagar** on the opposite side of the river. Hastings was now in the utmost peril. He had but a handful of men with him, and the Residency was surrounded by an armed mob of many thousands. But his presence of mind did not desert him. He secretly sent messages to the nearest garrisons, and during the night withdrew to the fortress of Chunar. The brave Popham was the first to come to his assistance. Chait

Singh's army, now forty thousand strong, was defeated, and Chait Singh fled to Gwalior, where he lived for twenty-nine years. The troops seized the treasure, and divided it amongst themselves. Hastings was thus defeated in his object of securing the money for the Company.

240. The Begams of Oudh.—Hastings was more successful in accomplishing another object of his journey. Asaf-ud-daulah of Oudh had never paid his debts. He complained that, by the treaty of 1775, he had been deprived of the money that properly belonged to the State, and that, instead of its having been given to the Begams, it should have been given to him, to pay his soldiers and the debts due by his father to the Company. He had no money now. The only way in which he could see relief might be obtained was by taking from the Begams the money they should never have possessed. The Begams were but ill-disposed towards the English. They had assisted Chait Singh in the late insurrection. Hastings agreed to the proposal of Asaf-ud-daulah. The Begams were forced to yield up seventy-six lakhs, which were handed over to the Company.

1781 A.D.

241. Pitt's Bill.—These measures were condemned by the Court of Directors. Indian affairs had likewise been discussed in Parliament, and a Bill, introduced by Mr. Pitt, had been passed, by which (1) a Board of Control, consisting of six members, was appointed by the Crown to exercise supreme authority, the President of the Board being directly responsible to Parliament. (2) No alliances were to be formed with Native States, nor was any war to be entered on, except in self-defence, without the consent of the Court of Directors. (3) The Governor-General's Council was reduced to three, one of whom was to be the Commander-in-Chief and the other two, Bengal Civilians. Similar Councils were established at Madras and Bombay. (4) No servant of the Company was to engage in any monetary transaction with native princes.

1784 A.D.

242. Hastings resigns.—On the 1st February, 1785, Hastings resigned. He handed over the keys of Fort William to the senior Member of Council, and on the afternoon of the same day sailed for England.

CHAPTER XVIII.

LORD CORNWALLIS: THE THIRD MAISUR WAR.

1786 A.D.—1793 A.D.

243. Lord Cornwallis.—On the departure of Warren Hastings from India, Mr. McPherson, the senior Member of Council, acted as Governor-General, until the arrival of **Lord Cornwallis** in 1786. Lord Cornwallis was resolved to carry out the policy laid down in Pitt's Bill, and to avoid war with the native states. But circumstances arose that prevented him from carrying out those intentions.

244. Tippu's religious Wars.—The treaty of Mangalore (1786) had scarcely been concluded, when Tippu proceeded to strengthen his army. He attacked the native Christians of **Kanara**, and forced them to profess the Muslim faith. **Coorg** was over-run, and seventy thousand persons were carried off to Seringapatam, and forced to become Mussalmans. Tippu led his army into Malabar against the Nayars, and gave them the choice of death or conversion to the faith of Islam. Thousands, true to their faith, suffered death. Thousands fled to the jungles. Many took shelter in Travancore. Eight thousand temples were levelled with the ground. Tippu next attacked **Travancore.** The wall and ditch that protected Travancore also included some parts of Cochin which had been conquered by Tippu. Tippu's entrance into this territory was thereby intercepted. At the head of fourteen thousand men Tippu attacked the fortified wall. At first he was unsuccessful; but he subsequently demolished the fortifications, and laid waste Travancore.

245. The Third Maisur War.—The Raja of Travancore was an ally of the English, and they were bound to protect him. Both Nizam Ali and Nana Farnavis were in great dread of Tippu's increasing power. A Tripartite Treaty was entered into between the English, the Mahrattas and the Nizam, by which they agreed mutually to defend each other from their enemies and to unite their forces to crush Tippu. War was declared, and in January,

1791, Lord Cornwallis went to Madras to take command of the army himself. He arrived on the high
1791 A.D. plain of Maisur without encountering any opposition, took Bangalore by assault, and then set out for Seringapatam, Tippu's capital. Tippu in the greatest state of excitement ordered the foul words of insult to the English with which the walls were covered to be washed off, and prisoners were murdered that no tales might be told of the miseries they had suffered. At Arikera Tippu was completely defeated, and had to take refuge inside the walls of his capital.

246. Retreat of the English.—Complete success would now have crowned the campaign. But the English commissariat was in a bad way. Provisions were scanty. Tippu had laid waste the country. The oxen were reduced to mere skeletons. Disease more deadly than war, invaded the camp. Cornwallis was forced to retreat, leaving his heavy siege train behind him.

247. Cornwallis again advances.—Lord Cornwallis remained in Bangalore till fresh troops and all necessary equipments should arrive from Madras. In January, 1782, he again set out for Seringapatam. The campaign was begun on a scale not seen in India since the days of Aurangzeb. The infantry, battering train, field-pieces and baggage moved in three parallel columns, while a hundred waggons loaded with liquors and sixty thousand bullocks belonging to the *Brinjaris* or hereditary oxen-drivers, loaded with provisions, brought up the rear. The Nizam's army of eight thousand men, gaily dressed but badly armed, and a small body of Mahrattas accompanied the English. Tippu awaited their arrival. His defences consisted of three lines, protected by three hundred cannon. The earth-works were covered with prickly plants, through which it seemed impossible for man or beast to penetrate. During the night Lord Cornwallis himself led his men to the attack; and before morning the English had gained a footing on the island on which Seringapatam is built.

248. Peace of Seringapatam.—Tippu was bewildered. The siege works of the allies were being advanced with the utmost expedition. It was now only a question of time and Seringapatam must fall. Nothing could save

Tippu but prompt submission. The Governor-General offered peace on condition *first*, that Tippu should surrender one-half of his territories to be divided between the English and their allies; *second*, that he should pay three crores and thirty lakhs of rupees; *third*, that all prisoners should be set free; *fourth*, that Tippu should deliver to the English his two sons as hostages, till the treaty was fulfilled. Tippu's only hope of retaining any power or territory was by accepting those conditions, and he put his signature and seal to them that very day. The Mahrattas and the Nizam, though they had given no assistance to the English during the war, received equal shares with them of the treasure and territory. The English secured to themselves the **Baramahal** on the east, **Dindigal** on the south, and a large extent of territory on the Malabar Coast, including **Tellicherry and Calicut**. **1792 A.D.**

CHAPTER XIX.

LORD CORNWALLIS: THE PERMANENT REVENUE SETTLEMENT.

1793 A.D.

249. The Permanent Revenue Settlement. —Brilliant as were the successes of Lord Cornwallis in the war against Tippu, the fame of his administration rests more on the changes he introduced into the revenue and the judicial institutions of the country. From time immemorial all the land in the country was the property of the Raja or the Emperor; and his revenue was chiefly obtained from receiving a certain proportion of the produce. To determine the proper share to be paid by the ryot, the great financier, **Todar Mall**, in the reign of Akbar, had all the lands measured and taxed according to their fertility (para. 110). Agents were appointed to collect what was due as the Emperor's share, and great power was given them, even to the levying of soldiers, in carrying out their work. As was the case in almost all Hindu institutions, the office of collector became hereditary, and, in course of time, the collector acquired so much power, that he set

himself up as Raja or Zemindar of the district. Warren Hastings did not acknowledge the Zemindars as proprietors of the soil, but simply as collectors of revenue, and he farmed out the lands to the highest bidder. But this system had proved a failure. In 1793 the Permanent Revenue Settlement was promulgated. By it the Zemindars were created the landlords of the soil, and were made responsible for a fixed permanent revenue to Government.

250. Cornwallis reforms the Civil Courts.—Lord Cornwallis also introduced changes into the judicial institutions of the country. The English Collector not only administered the revenue of his collectorate, but acted also as judge and magistrate. The duties of the Collector were, from this time, limited to matters affecting the revenue, and he was placed under a **Board of Revenue**; while judges were appointed over civil courts that were established in the districts. Changes were also made in the criminal courts: but too much power was given to the police. Cornwallis placed the whole administration of the country into the hands of the English servants of the Company. Under his rule no native could hope to rise to high employment in any branch of the service, no matter what his industry or abilities might be. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis returned to England.

CHAPTER XX.

SIR JOHN SHORE. (LORD TEIGNMOUTH.)

1793 A.D.—1798 A.D.

251. Sir John Shore.—Sir John Shore, a servant of the Company, was appointed to succeed Lord Cornwallis. He had shown the greatest ability in the preparation of the Permanent Revenue Settlement, and to him as much credit was due as to Lord Cornwallis for the promulgation of that measure. But the strictness with which he adhered to that part of Pitt's Bill or forming no alliance without the consent of the Home Board greatly weakened the English authority, and set both the Mahrattas and Tippu free to carry out their schemes for their aggrandisement.

252. Nizam Ali dismisses the English troops.—The Mahrattas went to war with Nizam Ali (para. 267). The latter asked the English for assistance, but Sir John Shore refused. Nizam Ali, enraged at this, dismissed the two English battalions that had hitherto been in his pay, and increased his French force. The influence the English had hitherto possessed at the court of the Nizam was thus completely lost, and the French, at the time the bitter foes of England, gained the ascendancy.

253. The Oudh Succession.—The chief event in the administration of Sir John Shore was the change he made in the Oudh succession. In 1797, Asaf-ud-daulah died. His rule had been as weak as it had been oppressive. Money had been wrung from the ryot and had been squandered in wasteful luxury and debauchery at the capital. The presence of the British brigade was the only power that had prevented internal anarchy or foreign invasion. On the death of Asaf-ud-daulah, Sir John Shore recognized **Vizier Ali** as his successor. Subsequently, it was reported that this Vizier Ali was not a son of the late Nawab, but the offspring of a man of the lowest caste. After the most careful inquiry, Sir John Shore found that Asaf-ud-daulah had left no lawful heir, and **Saadat Ali**, brother of the late Nawab, was placed on the masnad. Vizier Ali was sent to Benares, and a liberal pension was allowed him; but in 1799 he raised a rebellion, in which Mr. Cherry, the Resident, was killed. Vizier Ali was, thereupon, removed to Calcutta. Sir John Shore, who was created Lord Teignmouth, sailed for England in 1798.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE MARQUIS OF WELLESLEY.—THE FOURTH MAISUR WAR.

1798 A.D.—1805 A.D.

254. The Marquis of Wellesley.—Lord Mornington, better known by his subsequent title, the **Marquis of Wellesley**, succeeded Sir John Shore. He had been but a short time in India when he saw that the policy of trying to maintain peace by a *balance of power*, that is, by not allowing any one state in India to become so powerful that it might swallow up another state, must be given up, and that the only security for British interests was to establish the British as the paramount power in the land. Tippu was trying to form an alliance with France to drive the English out of the Peninsula. The Marquis of Wellesley proceeded at once to counteract this French influence, and to bring about the fall of Tippu. To this end, he first formed an alliance with the Nizam, by which the Nizam agreed to receive a *subsidiary* force of six thousand men together with artillery.

255. The Subsidiary System.—This system, which was introduced so largely by the Marquis of Wellesley, may be briefly described. Under it the native states surrendered their international life, that is, they could form no alliances, either offensive or defensive, without the consent of the English power. They could not entertain a foreigner in their service. They had to maintain a force commanded by English officers, the charges of which were met by the assignment of territory to the English. In return, the English pledged themselves to defend those states from foreign enemies.

256. War with Tippu.—Tippu had been strengthening his force by every means possible. His army, magnificently equipped, and well-drilled by French officers, was now in a high state of efficiency, and it was well known he was only waiting an opportunity to lead his soldiers against the English. In 1798 the storm burst. Tippu had sent envoys to the French in the Mauritius proposing

an offensive and defensive alliance. The Governor of that island had issued a proclamation, calling on the citizens to enlist under the banner of Tippu. An embassy from the Mauritius arrived in Maisur, and Tippu enrolled himself as a citizen of the French Republic. There was nothing for it but war. The Marquis of Wellesley set out for Madras, that he might be near the scene of operations. General Harris, the Commander-in-Chief, marched from Madras, at the head of eighteen thousand men. He was joined by a force of sixteen thousand men belonging to the Nizam, which, under British officers, formed now an effective body of troops. General Stuart was ordered to march from Malabar and join the main army. Tippu's policy was plain enough. He must, if possible, prevent a union of those armies. He hastened first to meet General Stuart, and took him by surprise at **Sedasir**; but was defeated with a loss of two thousand men. He next hurried on to meet the army advancing from Madras. At Mallavelli, thirty miles from Seringapatam, the opposing armies engaged in battle and Tippu's troops fled before the charge of the English infantry. Tippu himself was forced to seek safety behind the walls of his capital. General Harris followed and took up his position outside Seringapatam. He was soon joined by the Malabar force under General Stuart.

1799 A.D.

257. Tippu in difficulties.—Tippu, now driven into his capital with little chance of escape, lost all presence of mind, and gave himself up to grief and despair. He summoned his Council and asked them what they intended to do. "To die along with you" was the unanimous reply. Astrologers were consulted, and the Brahmans, whom Tippu had so hated and persecuted, were sent for. Large sums were given them to perform incantations, by which the fall of his kingdom might be averted. Prayers were ordered to be offered in Muslim mosques and Hindu temples. But Tippu's end was near. He sent to General Harris asking for peace. Peace was offered, but on such terms as to reduce Tippu to the position of a nominal Raja like the Nawab of Bengal. Tippu, enraged at such

1799 A.D.

a proposal, resolved rather to die than add one more to the number of Rajas who were pensioners of the English.

258. Fall of Seringapatam.—Meanwhile General Harris continued to besiege the town. On the 3rd May a breach was effected. The following day, Sir David Baird, who had formerly been a prisoner for four years in the dungeons of Seringapatam, stormed the breach at the head of four thousand men, and in a few minutes planted the English flag on the battlements. Tippu's troops fought with the utmost bravery. It was of no avail. The English forced their way. The city was taken. Under a low gateway, where the fight had been the thickest, amongst a mass of dead and dying, lay Tippu, scarcely distinguishable in death. His body was carried to the palace and buried with royal honours in the tomb erected for his father.

259. Character of Tippu.—Thus ended a short, but, while it lasted, a powerful and vigorous dynasty. It has been said "Haidar was born to create an empire, Tippu, to lose one." Tippu, unlike his father, was a considerable scholar. In his policy of waging religious wars on all sides and compelling the people to become Mussalmans, he was a marked contrast to Haidar, who granted the utmost religious toleration to his subjects. The cruel way in which Tippu treated his prisoners, and the bitter enmity he showed to the English, have led him to be regarded as a monster of cruelty. But, when the English entered his territory, they found the lands well cultivated, the people happy and strongly attached to their sovereign; indicating that within his own kingdom Tippu's power and influence had been used for good.

260. Results of the war.—The family of Tippu was deposed. His two sons were sent to Vellore, and a liberal pension was allowed them. **Kanara, Coimbatore** and the **Wynaad** were taken possession of by the English. The Nizam received territory adjoining his own province; but it was subsequently ceded to the English to meet the expense of maintaining the subsidiary force, and it became known as the "Ceded Districts." An infant son of the old Maisur family was declared Maharaja of the remaining territory.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE MARQUIS OF WELLESLEY.

1798 A.D.—1805 A.D.

261. Tanjore brought under English rule.—The Marquis of Wellesley next turned his attention to Tanjore. For years the people of Tanjore had been groaning under oppression and mis-government. The cultivators were ground down by the renters, and frequently the servants of the Raja would carry off whole crops, while the ryots looked helplessly on. It was reported that in 1786 as many as sixty-five thousand of the inhabitants fled from the district. The Raja died and there was now a dispute as to the succession. The Marquis of Wellesley settled the matter by taking the government of the country into his own hands, and giving a pension to each of the claimants. **1801 A.D.**

262. The Carnatic taken over by the English.—Affairs in the Carnatic were equally bad. The aged Muhammad Ali died in 1795 and was succeeded by **Umdut-ul-umra,** his eldest son. In the late war with Tippu, this Nawab had again and again put obstructions in the way of the Marquis of Wellesley, and, on the capture of Seringapatam, treacherous correspondence between him and Tippu had been discovered. On the death of Umdut-ul-umra in 1801 all civil and military authority was taken from the Nawab's family, and the entire administration of the Carnatic was transferred to the English. As in the case of Tanjore, a liberal pension was granted to the new and nominal Nawab. **1801 A.D.**

263. Thus during these three eventful years (1799 to 1801), the Madras Presidency was extended from the Coromandel coast to the Malabar coast and southward to Cape Comorin; while on the north it reached as far as the Krishna and the Godavari.

264. North-West Provinces ceded to the English.—The Marquis of Wellesley had also to interfere in the affairs of Oudh. Saadat Ali was oppressing his

subjects very much. His army was not kept in the efficient state promised by the subsidiary treaty. 1801 A.D. There was danger of an invasion by a descendant of Ahmad Shah Abdali. The Governor-General, therefore, forced the Nawab to cede territory, which now forms a great part of the North-west Provinces, for the maintenance of a force sufficient to defend the country.

265. The Marquis of Wellesley.—The remaining years of the administration of the Marquis of Wellesley were occupied with wars with the Mahrattas. The Marquis of Wellesley was a statesman of the highest order. Having none of the narrow ideas of the servants of the Company, he identified British interests with those of India, and established the British sovereignty as the paramount power in the land. He was the founder of the Indian Civil Service. He established a college at Calcutta, where the young servants of the Company might study History, Political Economy and the Indian Languages on their arrival in the country. The Marquis of Wellesley was of small stature, and was known amongst his friends as "the glorious little man." And so long as the History of the British power remains, so long will this glorious little man occupy one of the highest places amongst the goodly roll of statesmen that have extended and consolidated that power in India.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE MAHRATTAS.

FROM THE TREATY OF SALBAI TO THE TREATY OF BASIN.

1782 A.D.—1803 A.D.

266. Mahadaji Sindia.—For many years after the treaty of Salbai, the Mahrattas were on friendly terms with the English. But during this period the Mahratta history is marked by the rapid rise of several of the Mahratta leaders and especially of Mahadaji Sindia. For years a striving for supreme power in Maharashtra was carried on between him and Nana Farnavis. The aim of

the latter was to cement the Mahratta confederacy under the authority of the Peshwa, which at this time meant under himself; while the whole conduct of Sindia showed that he wanted to set up an independent State, if not to be supreme in the land. Sindia's independence had already been acknowledged by the English. He had acted the part of a mediator between the English and the Court of Puna (para. 224). He had Shah Alam II. under his protection. His army, disciplined by De Boigne, a Frenchman, was the finest in India.

Sindia set out for Puna, resolved if possible to overthrow the Brahman influence there. At Puna he began to ingratiate himself with Madu Rao, the Peshwa, and tried to prevail on him to desert Nana Farnavis and put himself under his protection, when he was attacked by fever and died on the 12th February 1794. He was succeeded by his nephew, Daulat Rao Sindia. **1790 A.D.**

267. Battle of Kurdla.—Nana Farnavis was now supreme in directing the affairs of the Peshwa. A dispute arose between him and Nizam Ali. *For the last time* the Mahratta chiefs assembled under the Peshwa's banner. The Nizam applied to the English for help; but Sir John Shore refused to assist him (para. 252). The Nizam, nevertheless, confident of victory, marched from Haidarabad; the dancing girls in prophetic songs glorifying his triumphs; and the soldiers declaring they would plunder Puna. But at Kurdla they were utterly routed, and the Nizam was forced to cede to the Mahrattas territory yielding thirty-five lakhs a year. **1795 A.D.**

268. Baji Rao II., the last of the Peshwas—1796 A.D.-1818 A.D.—Madu Rao died the following year, and the Court at Puna became a complete network of political intrigue. In 1800, Nana Farnavis died, and with him departed "all the wisdom and moderation of the Mahratta Government." Disorders became everywhere prevalent. Baji Rao was completely under the control of Daulat Rao Sindia. Jaswant Rao Holkar rebelled. Gathering around him an army of daring brigands and free-booters that delighted **1801 A.D.**

in plunder, he came up with the united forces of the Peshwa and Sindia near **Puna**. The battle was one of the most obstinate ever fought in India. Holkar gained a complete victory. The whole of Sindia's guns, baggage and stores fell into his hands. Baji Rao fled to Basin and put himself into the hands of the English.

269. Treaty of Basin.—At **Basin**, Baji Rao entered into a treaty with the English. The chief terms were, (1) a subsidiary force was to be permanently stationed in the Peshwa's territory, and twenty-six lakhs of Rupees were to be paid by the Peshwa for its maintenance ; (2) no European of a nation hostile to the English was to be entertained by the Peshwa ; (3) the Peshwa gave up his claims to **Surat**, and bound himself to be the faithful ally of the English. The English, on the other hand, promised to protect him and his kingdom.

1802 A.D.

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE MARQUIS OF WELLESLEY—THE SECOND MAHRATTA WAR.

1802 A.D.—1803 A.D.

270. The Treaty of Basin was a turning point in the history of India. It led England into the greatest war she has ever waged in India, and by her triumphant success in that war, her supremacy in the land was established. By this treaty the Peshwa had sacrificed his independence, and had acknowledged England as a Paramount Power. Neither Sindia nor Raghuji Bhonsle of Barar had been consulted, and they refused to accept the treaty. Sindia crossed the Narbada and joined Raghuji Bhonsle. War was declared. Holkar remained inactive watching the issue of events.

271. The Second Mahratta war.—The campaign was arranged by the Marquis of Wellesley on a scale hitherto unknown in the annals of the English in India. Colonel Wellesley, brother of the Governor-General

encamped near **Ahmadnagar**; Colonel Stevenson on the **Godavari**; while General Stewart was stationed with a covering force between the **Krishna** and the **Tungabhadra**. At **Cawnpur** an army was placed under General Lake to attack Sindia's possessions in **Hindustan**; another, at Allahabad, was to act against **Bundelkhand**; a third was to invade **Katak**; while a fourth was sent into **Gujarat** to take **Broach**. The Mahrattas were, therefore, to be attacked on all sides. General Wellesley began the war by storming Ahmadnagar, which fell into his hands. He met the united forces of Sindia and Bhonsle at **Assai**, a village situated at the confluence of the **Kailna** and the **Juha**, and gave battle. The odds were tremendous—four thousand five hundred English against fifty thousand Mahrattas. But at the first shot Raghuji Bhonsle fled. Sindia soon followed. The Mahratta artillery remained firm for a time and did great execution, but, when the infantry broke, the battle was lost, and ninety-eight cannon remained in the victor's hands. The loss on the English side was very severe. More than one-third of those engaged were either killed or wounded. But a victory had been gained more splendid than any recorded in the history of the Deccan. **Burhampur** and the fort of **Asirgarh** were taken by Stevenson. Wellesley marched into Barar and defeated the Raja at Argam. **Gawilghar** thereafter fell into the hands of the English.

23rd Sept.

1803 A.D.

272. Peace of Dewalgaon.—The loss of Gawilghar forced Bhonsle to come to terms, and on the 16th December he signed the treaty of **Dewalgaon**. By this treaty Bhonsle ceded to the English the province of **Katak**. All the territory west of the **Wardha** and south of **Gawilghar** was given to the **Nizam**. No subject of a nation at war with England was to be entertained without the consent of the English Government. A **Resident** was to be received at Nagpur.

273. The war in Hindustan.—The English armies were no less successful against Sindia's possessions. General Lake captured Aligarh and advanced to Delhi. Sindia's army was commanded by one Louis Bourquin, a

Frenchman; but the English charged with the bayonet and Sindia's army was unable to withstand the fury of the onset. General Lake entered Delhi in
1803 A.D.
triumph and took the aged blind Emperor, Shah Alam II, into his protection. Agra was next captured; and by the decisive victory at **Laswari** (Nov. 1), the French battalions in Sindia's army were broken up, and all Sindia's territories south of the Chambal, with Agra and Delhi, were placed in the power of the English Government. The army in Gujarat captured **Broach** and **Champanir.** **Bundelkhand** was over-run by Colonel Powell.

274. Peace of Sirji Anjengaon.—Sindia, vanquished at every point, deserted by Bhonsle of Barar, his splendid army almost annihilated, was forced to sue for peace, and on the 30th December he signed a treaty on much the same lines as that of Dewalgaon. All the territory between the Jumna and the Ganges was ceded to the English. The cities of Agra and Delhi thus fell into their hands. They also received Broach in Gujarat.
1803 A.D.
Bundelkhand was taken in exchange for the districts in the Mahratta country that had been ceded for the support of the subsidiary force by the treaty of Basin. The same conditions were made as in the treaty of Dewalgaon with reference to Europeans, and to Sindia receiving a Resident at his court. This treaty is known as the **Treaty of Sirji Anjengaon.**

CHAPTER XXV.

THE MARQUIS OF WELLESLEY—THE THIRD MAHRATTA WAR.

APRIL 1804 A.D.—DECEMBER 1805 A.D.

275. The Third Mahratta war—1804 A.D.-1805 A.D.—Within four months Sindia and Raghuji Bhonsle had been thoroughly defeated and had been glad to sue for peace. The English had no desire to go to war with **Jaswant Rao Holkar**, and Holkar pretended at first that he wished peace. Shortly afterwards he entered

Rajputana and collected chauth. The Rajputs were allies of the English, and the English were bound to protect them from their enemies. Holkar was called on to withdraw. He refused. War was declared. Holkar was no mean foe. His army had been greatly strengthened by fugitives from the defeated armies of Sindia and Bhonsle, and now numbered sixty thousand cavalry and fifteen thousand infantry, with one hundred and ninety-two pieces of artillery.

April 1804 to Dec. 1805

276. Retreat of the English.—On the arrival of General Lake in Rajputana the troops of Holkar beat a hasty retreat. Holkar's territory was then invaded, and the fortress of **Tank Rampura** captured. But, the rains setting in, Colonel Monson was left to keep Holkar in check, while General Lake returned with the main army to cantonments. Colonel Monson crossed the Chambal and advanced through the Pass of **Mokhundra** into Holkar's territory. He soon began to find himself in difficulties. His supplies were running short and treachery was in his camp. He, therefore, retreated, leaving the irregular cavalry to follow. The cavalry were dispersed by Holkar, and the forces that had been sent by Sindia deserted to the enemy. At the Pass of Mokhundra the English force was attacked by the whole army of Holkar, but succeeded in driving it back. After many difficulties in crossing swollen rivers, wading through flooded plains, and struggling along roads in which the cannon sank to the axletrees in mud, Colonel Monson at length led the wreck of his army into **Agra**. The sick, the exhausted and the wounded were left behind, and were cut to pieces; the cannon and the baggage were left fast in the mud. The effect of this retreat tended to dim the military lustre of the English for a time, and gained for Holkar an ally in the **Raja of Bhartpur.**

277. Holkar defeated.—Holkar in the most daring manner led his infantry to Delhi, for the purpose of taking the town and securing the person of the Emperor. But the English under Colonel Ouchterlony gallantly defended the place, and, after seven days, the siege was raised. General Lake subsequently made up to Holka.

at Farakabad, and defeated him. General Frazer had meanwhile been sent against the Raja of Bhartpur, and had defeated him in a great battle fought at Dig (13th Nov.); and the fort of Dig itself was subsequently taken. Holkar's dominions had also fallen into the possession of the English. Colonel Murray, with an army from Gujarat, had taken possession of Indor, the capital. The only strong point yet remaining to be captured was Bhartpur. It was a very strong fortress. For three months the English forces besieged it. On four occasions they tried to take it by storm, but failed, sustaining a loss of over three thousand men. While they were preparing to make another attack, the Raja came to terms, and paid twenty lakhs of rupees as the price of peace. Sindia, observing the success of Holkar, had meanwhile thrown off his allegiance to the British, and, on peace being made with Bhartpur, Holkar joined him and received a hearty welcome.

23rd Dec. 1804 A.D.

10th April 1805 A.D.

278. Policy of Non-Intervention.—But a new spirit had come over the British nation, and a new policy was to be adopted. The brilliant successes in the second Mahratta war had dazzled the public in England. Within a very few months, the English, by force of arms, had come into possession of the Mughal capital, and had reduced the whole of Central India to dependence. This new war with Holkar began to alarm the people in England. A class of politicians arose that condemned the system of conquest and annexation,—that condemned the subsidiary system. They advocated "a policy of non-intervention." The native states, they said, ought to be allowed to settle their own quarrels. The English should not interfere. They should have a strong military force ever ready to act on the defensive, but no more. The Marquis of Wellesley returned to England, and Lord Cornwallis was sent out as Governor-General to carry out this new policy. He died soon after reaching Calcutta, and Sir George Barlow, the senior Member of Council, succeeded him in office. The cost of the recent wars had been very heavy. Peace was now

wanted, peace at any price. Sindia saw there was little hope of his being finally successful and made terms with the English. Gwalior was restored to him, and the Chambal was made the boundary line between his possessions and those of the English. A pension of four lakhs was given him, and jaghirs were bestowed on his wife and his daughter. 22nd Nov.

279. Peace with Holkar.—Holkar fled into the Panjab, where he hoped to find the Sikhs ready to assist him. He was greatly disappointed. Closely followed by Lord Lake, he would soon have been utterly crushed, had not the new policy saved him. He no sooner asked for peace than he got it on the most favourable terms. All the territories that had been taken from him by the English were restored. In further pursuance of this new policy Sir George Barlow broke faith with the Rajputs. The Rajput states had done great service to the English during the war, and the English had promised to protect them from their enemies. Sir George Barlow, notwithstanding the protest of Lord Lake, annulled the treaties, and handed the Rajputs over to be ravished and plundered by Holkar's brigands. Lord Lake resigned in disgust and sailed for England.

280. The Vellore Mutiny.—While peace was thus being procured at any price in the north of India, the whole of southern India was startled by the news that the sepoys at Vellore had mutinied and killed their officers. Colonel Gillespie, who was stationed at Arcot with the 19th Dragoons, at once galloped off to the relief. Soon his guns were brought up to the gate of the fort, a breach was quickly made, and not until over three hundred sepoys had been killed did the English desist from the slaughter. 1806 A.D.

281. Cause of the Mutiny.—The Commander-in-Chief with the consent of **Lord William Bentinck**, the Governor of Madras, had introduced several changes into the army regulations. The sepoys were no longer to appear on parade with ear-rings or their distinctive caste marks. They were to shave their chins and trim their beards after a certain model. They were no longer to wear their turbans, but a kind of head dress that

somewhat resembled a European hat. A wicked rumour was circulated that this hat was a symbol of Christian belief, and the sepoys began to fear that they were to be forced to become Christians.

282. Results of the Mutiny.—The members of Tippu's family were removed from Vellore to Calcutta. The new regulations were cancelled. The Governor of Madras and the Commander-in-Chief were recalled. Missionaries were not allowed to continue their work.

CHAPTER XXVI.

LORD MINTO.

1807 A.D. TO 1813 A.D.

283. Lord Minto came out to India intending to carry out the peace policy: but he had only been a few weeks in Calcutta when the riot and anarchy prevailing in **Bundelkhand** attracted his attention. Sir George Barlow had allowed this fair province to be over-run with banditti. Lord Minto felt such a state of affairs to be discreditable to the English Government, and sent an army into the district. Many of the petty chiefs at once yielded. The fort of **Kalinger** was captured, and peace and prosperity were restored to the province.

284. Treaty with Ranjit Singh.—The Sikhs (para. 143) had become a great nation in the north-west. Their most powerful chief at this time was Ranjit Singh. A treaty was entered into with him whereby the Sikh states between the Satlej and the Jumna were taken under the protection of the English, and an English garrison was left at Ludhiana.

285. Mutiny at Madras.—Meanwhile, Sir George Barlow, who had been appointed Governor of Madras, was making himself very unpopular. He had been called on by the Court of Directors to reduce expenditure, and he proceeded to abolish the *Tent Contract*, by which the officers were furnished with a fixed monthly allowance for providing tent equipage for their regiments whether they were in the field or not. The officers mutinied and encouraged the men in rebellion. Lord Minto went to

Madras, and by energy and tact put down the mutiny. Sir George Barlow was recalled.

286. Renewal of the Charter.—The Company's Charter now came up again for consideration and was again renewed for twenty years. Trade with India was thrown open to the whole nation, and the Company were allowed to have the monopoly of trade only with China. The interdict on Missionaries was removed. Lord Minto returned to England in 1813 and died the same year.

1813 A.D.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS (LORD MOIRA). *WAR WITH NEPAL.*

1814 A.D. TO 1816 A.D.

287. When **Earl Moira**, better known by his subsequent title, the **Marquis of Hastings**, landed at Calcutta, there was peace in India; but it was like the calm that often precedes the storm. Within a very short time wars were raging from Madras to the Himalayas, from Orissa to Gujarat.

288. War in Nepal.—The first war was in **Nepal.** The valley of Nepal is situated in the southern slopes of the Himalayas. From a remote period this fertile country had been inhabited by an industrious and peaceful Hindu people called **Newars**, who devoted themselves to trade and commerce, and in religion, were followers of Buddha. But about 1767 a race of Rajputs and Brahmans from Kashmir, who called themselves **Ghurkas**, over-ran this happy valley and took possession of the land. They subseqently invaded British territory and annexed two large districts in Oudh. Lord Hastings fixed a day on which the Ghurkas must give these up. The day passed. The Nepal Government remained obstinate. Four British divisions amounting in all to thirty thousand men with sixty guns entered Nepal at four different points.

289. The operations of the year 1814 were not very successful. One of the divisions commanded by General Gillespie, the hero of Vellore, failed to take the fortress

of **Kalinga**, and Gillespie himself was killed. The division of the army acting in the east fared no better. It was different, however, with the division in the west, which was commanded by General David Ouchterlony. The work assigned to him was the capture of **Maloun.** This fortress was situated high up the Himalayas. The difficulties General Ouchterlony had to overcome in leading his army up those mountains were enormous. But on he pressed, taking fort after fort, until he reached Maloun. The Ghurkas, entrenched behind stockades, fought with the utmost valour; but the British, charging with the bayonet, drove the enemy before them and secured the fort.

1814 A.D.

290. Peace of Sigauli.—On the fall of Maloun, **Jytak** surrendered, and **Kumaun** was conquered. Again the Ghurkas rallied their forces, but at **Makwanpur** they were again defeated. They now hastened to comply with the terms offered to them—that all the conquests of the Ghurkas west of the Kali should be surrendered, together with the whole Tarai, and that a Resident should be received at Khatmandu.

1816 A.D.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS—PINDARI WAR.

1813 A.D. TO 1823 A.D.

291. Rise of the Pindaris.-While Sir David Ouchterlony was bringing the war in Nepal to a close, the Pindaris made incursions into British territories. Those Pindaris, the off-scourings of the Hindus and the Muhammadans, were bound together by only one tie—that of plunder. On invading a country they generally divided off into small parties of two or three hundred. They advanced with such rapidity that their entrance into a village was the first news the unfortunate villagers had of their approach. They took neither tents nor baggage with them. They carried nothing but their arms, and they slept on their saddle cloths. On Lord Hastings' arrival in India in 1813 there were no fewer than fifty thousand of those Pindari robbers living by plunder in

Central India. To utterly crush them he called together the armies of the three Presidencies, numbering in all about one hundred and twenty thousand men, by far the largest army the English had ever put into the field.

292. The Mahrattas.—Meanwhile the relations between the English and the Mahratta chiefs must be settled. They were known to be well disposed towards the Pindaris. Sindia, especially, was secretly intriguing against the English. His correspondence was intercepted, and he was forced to enter into a treaty, by which he pledged himself to assist the English against the Pindaris, and to prevent any new gangs being formed in his territory. Negotiations were next opened with **Amir Khan**, an adventurer who had raised himself to be chief of the Pathans, and who had been serviceable to Holkar in a previous war. Amir Khan agreed to oppose the Pindaris. In return, he was confirmed in the jaghirs he had received from Holkar. He became a feudatory prince, the founder of a Muhammadan dynasty, which is still represented by the Nawab of Tonk in Rajputana. Holkar's territories were in a different condition. **Tulsa Bai**, the queen-mother, who acted as regent for the young prince, Mulhar Rao Holkar, was at the mercy of the army. The military leaders resolved to wage war against the English and advanced to **Mahidpur.** The English gained a complete victory Holkar was glad to sue for peace. His state was made a subsidiary state under British protection. **1818 A.D.**

293. Overthrow of the Pindaris.—The position of the Pindaris was now desperate. **Kharim** and **Chitu**, their two notorious leaders, had twenty-three thousand men between them, but what was such a force as this against the armies with which they were surrounded? Defeat followed defeat. Many of the Pindaris fled to the jungles and perished miserably. Others sought refuge in the villages, but the villagers, mindful of the sufferings they had inflicted on them, killed them without mercy. Kharim surrendered. Chitu was hunted from place to place, and was at last devoured by a tiger. Those of the Pindaris who survived mingled with the population, and within a very few years no trace of their once dreadful gangs was to be found **1819 A.D.**

CHAPTER XXIX.

MARQUIS OF HASTINGS—OVERTHROW OF THE PESHWAS.

1813 A.D. TO 1823 A.D.

294. Trimbakji Dainglia.—About 1813 Trimbakji Dainglia rose to notice at the court of Puna. He was originally a spy; but, by his ability, and by pandering to the Peshwa's vices, he gained a complete ascendancy over him. He hated the English with the intensest animosity, and induced Baji Rao to intrigue with Sindia and Holkar to bring about their overthrow, and to re-unite the Mahrattas under the Peshwa's authority. At his instigation the Gaikwar's Prime Minister was murdered, although he had gone to Puna under the guarantee of English protection. Mountstuart Elphinstone, the British Resident, demanded the surrender of Trimbakji, and he was sent to prison in the fort of Thana on the island of Salsette. But within a year he made his escape. Large sums of money were secretly sent to him by the Peshwa. Elphinstone came to know of this, and forced Baji Rao to sign a treaty at Puna, compelling him to cede Ahmadnagar and other territory, to deliver up Trimbakji, and to hold no communication with any power but the English. But Baji Rao had no intention of abiding by the Treaty of Puna. He began to repair his fortresses and to strengthen his garrisons. Elphinstone removed the British forces from Puna to Kharki. That very day the Mahrattas attacked the British, but they were easily defeated.

295. Nagpur taken by the English.—Meanwhile Appa Sahib, the Raja of Nagpur, had been secretly taking part in the conspiracy to overthrow the English. On the 25th November, he made an unsuccessful attack on the Residency on the Sitabaldi Hills. Another Army of Mahrattas was defeated at Jubbulpur. Appa Sahib fled to Jodhpur. A grandson of Raghuji Bhonsle was placed on the throne, and on his dying without issue in 1853, Nagpur was annexed to the British possessions.

1817 A.D.

296. The Peshwa deposed.—The Peshwa had still about thirty thousand men with him. With these he fell upon a detachment of sepoys under Captain Staunton at **Koregam**, but the sepoys fought with such bravery and determination that the Mahrattas retired from the field. Baji Rao then fled to the Carnatic. Satara was taken, (10th February 1818), and a proclamation issued declaring that Baji Rao and his family were excluded from all share in the Government. **Baji Rao** at last surrendered. A pension of eight lakhs of rupees per annum was granted to him. **Bithaur**, near Cawnpur, was given him as a residence. He died in January 1851. Trimbakji was captured and retained as a prisoner in **Chunar** till his death. The Raja of Satara was restored. But he immediately issued a proclamation giving over the government to the British Resident. All the Mahratta country was soon thereafter subdued. The centre of India, which, for half a century, had been a scene of anarchy and rapine and bloodshed, was now restored to peace and order. Villages that had been plundered and destroyed were restored, and fertile fields that had been made a desert soon waved with golden corn.

1818 A.D.

1818 A.D.

Lord Hastings returned to England in 1823.

CHAPTER XXX.

LORD AMHERST—THE FIRST BURMESE WAR.

1823 A.D. TO 1828 A.D.

297. Lord Amherst, who succeeded the Marquis of Hastings, had scarcely assumed the reins of Government when he found himself involved in a discussion with the Court of **Ava.**

298. Origin of the Burmese war.—The Burmese claimed the island of **Shahpuri**, and sent over a thousand men, who killed several of the English garrison and drove off the remainder. Maha Bandula, their great national

hero, was also sent into Arakan, to drive the English out of Bengal, and to bring the Governor-General to Ava, bound in golden chains which he took with him for the purpose. An expedition, under the command of Sir Archibald Campbell, sailed for Rangoon. At the first discharge of the British guns, the Burmese soldiers took to flight, and the inhabitants of Rangoon retired to the jungles. Maha Bandula was recalled from Arakan. In December he appeared at the head of sixty thousand men. The British force was soon surrounded with stockades and the Burmese burrowed themselves in holes they dug behind these. But the British took the stockades by storm, and Maha Bandula fled to **Donabu.** The British army followed. Donabu was taken. **Prome** fell without a blow. At the battle of **Pagahn,** the last Burmese army was extinguished.

1824 A.D.

299. Peace of Yendabu.—At **Yendabu** a treaty was signed, by which the king of Ava agreed to cede **Assam, Arakan** and **Tennaserim** to the Company, to pay a crore of rupees towards the expenses of the war, and to receive a British **Minister** at his court.

1826 A.D.

300. Capture of Bhartpur.—A difficulty arose in the **Jat** state of Bhartpur, which had been under British protection from the time of Lord Wellesley. The Raja died in 1825 leaving a son of only seven years of age. A cousin of the boy Raja, having gained over the army, put the regent to death, cast the little prince into prison, ascended the throne and declared he would hold **Bhartpur** in defiance of the Governor-General. Jats, Pindaris, and others flocked to his standard. To engage in an attack on Bhartpur was an important affair. Bhartpur had successfully withstood the attacks of the English before. It was looked upon as impregnable. An army under Lord Combermere advanced against this fortress, and as the heavy artillery made little impression on the mud walls, the commander resolved to mine them. Ten thousand pounds of powder were put into the mine. The train was fired. Vast masses of hardened clay and rock were sent flying in the air. The British force rushed into the breach and bayonetted the

1826 A.D.

defenders. The fortress that had withstood Lord Lake was taken. The usurper was imprisoned, and the young Raja re-established on the throne.

CHAPTER XXXI.

LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK—SOCIAL REFORMS.

1828 A.D. TO 1835 A.D.

301. The next Governor-General was **Lord William Bentinck.** Twenty-two years before this he had been Governor of Madras (para. 281). His administration was not rendered famous by any great war; but the reforms, social and judicial, that he introduced into the country mark the seven years of his rule as one of the brightest periods in the history of India.

302. Coorg and Maisur.—Both **Coorg** and **Maisur** were being shamefully misgoverned and Lord William Bentinck was forced to interfere. "In consideration of the unanimous wish of the people," Coorg was annexed. Maisur was placed under the management of the English Government, the Raja being allowed a handsome pension. The Raja has since died. In 1881 his adopted son was restored to the ancient throne of Maisur.

303. Changes in the Company's Charter.—In 1833 the Company's Charter was renewed. From that time, the Company ceased to be a trading corporation and became a ruling body. The monopoly of trade with China was consequently abolished, and liberty was given to Europeans to reside and trade and acquire property in India.

304. Reforms.—During the peaceful reign of Lord William Bentinck the judicial courts were reformed, and the vernacular languages were substituted for Persian in all civil and criminal courts. Natives were much more largely employed in the public service. The study of English was introduced into Government schools. The most active measures were taken to suppress the Thugs, a class of robbers and murderers, who, bound together

by an oath, and disguised as pilgrims or merchants, went from place to place enticing the unwary into their company, and then strangling them. Lord William Bentinck also laboured to establish steam communication between England and India *viâ* the Red Sea. But of all the reforms with which his name is associated, that by which he will be best remembered, and for which a grateful posterity will ever thank him, was the abolition of *Sati*. In May 1835, Lord William Bentinck left India.

CHAPTER XXXII.

LORD AUCKLAND—THE AFGHAN WAR.

1836 A.D. TO 1842 A.D.

305. Cause of the Afghan war.—Shortly after Lord Auckland's arrival in India his attention was drawn to **Afghanistan**. The situation of affairs in that country was very serious. **Dost Muhammad** had seized the throne of **Kabul**, and **Shah Shuja**, the reigning monarch, had fled to the English at **Ludhiana**. The Shah of **Persia**, at the instigation of Russia, had advanced against **Herat** with forty thousand men. Nor had the Russians been intriguing with the Persians alone. Their agents had likewise been sent to Kabul, and under their influence Dost Muhammad declined to enter into a treaty with the Governor-General. To preserve peace in India, it was necessary that Afghanistan should be friendly to the English. It was resolved to replace Shah Shuja on the throne. A **tripartite** treaty was entered into between him, **Ranjit Singh** and the English, and "the army of the Indus" was at once formed under the command of Sir John Kean and set out for Afghanistan.

1838 A.D.

306. Kabul captured.—After meeting with a slight resistance from the Amirs of Sind, on account of which Karachi was taken, the army proceeded under many difficulties through the **Bolan Pass** to **Kandahar**, and thence to **Kabul**, which was occupied without resistance. Within a few weeks, this army was strengthened by a division that had advanced

1839 A.D.

through the Khaibar Pass, capturing Ali Masjid and Jalalabad on its way. Dost Muhammad surrendered. Shah Shuja was placed on the throne. The English had no desire for conquest. A great part of the army was, therefore, ordered back to India, a small force being left under General Sale and General Nott to garrison the country. For some time the Afghans appeared to be satisfied. But in October the Khilji chiefs revolted, and Sir Robert Sale left Kabul to re-open communications with Jalalabad. The gallant way in which Sir Robert Sale defended himself in this town, when again and again assailed by overwhelming numbers, was one of the most heroic events of the war, and gained for the defenders the name of "The illustrious garrison."

1841 A.D.

307. Retreat and massacre of the English.—Meanwhile, sad events were taking place at Kabul. On the 2nd November there was an uproar in the streets. The mob attacked the houses in which the English officers lived, and twenty-three persons, including Sir Alexander Burnes, fell victims to their fury. The news of this insurrection in the city spread over the country, and soon the Afghan tribes were hurrying from all directions to Kabul, and hemming in the British on all sides. Akbar Khan, the eldest son of Dost Muhammad, put himself at the head of the Afghans. First one fort was taken and then another. The British army was daily pressed closer and closer. Provisions could not be obtained. Famine must follow. Sir William MacNaghten, as English envoy, entered into negotiations with Akbar Khan. Arrangements were made for an interview, which was to take place in an open space near the cantonment. On the 23rd December, Sir William MacNaghten advanced thither, accompanied by other three officers. Suddenly they were surrounded. MacNaghten was shot by Akbar Khan. His body was hacked to pieces and his head carried away and exposed in the bazaar of Kabul. Notwithstanding such base treachery, the English leaders still put faith in Akbar Khan's promises. They surrendered their guns and treasures, and agreed to retire to India, Akbar Khan and his associates promising to supply them with all things necessary on the journey. On the 6th January the British forces left Kabul, leaving Shah

Shuja behind them. They still numbered four thousand five hundred fighting men, with about twelve thousand camp followers. The cold was severe, and several died during the first night. Next day they proceeded on their way. Then commenced a series of treacheries, such as are perhaps unparalleled in history. As the retreating multitude marched through the passes, the Khiljis manned the heights and poured on them a destructive fire. In the terrible Kurd Kabul pass, as many as three thousand perished. The wives of the officers, amongst whom were Lady Sale and Lady MacNaghten, were handed over to Akbar Khan, as the only chance of saving their lives. The remainder pressed on. Thousands died from cold and hunger. Thousands were shot down by the bullets of the Afghans. Some deserted to the enemy. Of the sixteen thousand five hundred that left Kabul, only one, a surgeon, named Brydon, succeeded in reaching Jalalabad, and making known the direful tidings of the utter annihilation of the army.

1842 A.D.

308. First Chinese War—1840-42.—During Lord Auckland's administration there was war with China, which ended in the Chinese surrendering **Hong-Kong** to the British, and in four ports being opened to British commerce.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH: THE AFGHAN WAR.

1842 A.D. TO 1844 A.D.

309. Kabul again captured.—The news of the sad end of the Afghan army reached Calcutta only a few weeks before **Lord Ellenborough** arrived there to take the place of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (28th February 1842). General Sale, with his illustrious garrison, was still holding out bravely at Jalalabad. **General Nott** was gallantly maintaining his position at **Kandahar.** One army was sent through the Khaibar under General Pollock to the relief of Sale; another through the Bolan to relieve Nott. Onward both armies advanced, driving the Afghans before them and giving no quarter. On the 15th September the army under Pollock entered Kabul in triumph, and the British flag again floated over the Bala Hissar. The only

anxiety the British now had was as to the fate of the prisoners. But this anxiety was soon allayed. Sir Robert Sale had the gratification of leading his wife and daughter and the other unfortunate prisoners back to the British camp. The great bazaar at Kabul, in which the head of Sir William MacNaghten had been exposed, was blown up by gunpowder as a punishment to the city. Nothing more remained to be done. Vengeance had been taken for the murder of the envoy and the massacre of the soldiers. The honour of the British arms had been vindicated. Shah Shuja was dead. Dost Muhammad was, therefore, set at liberty, and the Afghans were left free to manage their own affairs in their own way.

310. Annexation of Sind.—Scarcely had the Afghan war been brought to a close, when Lord Ellenborough was forced to interfere in Sind. The Amirs had unwillingly agreed to cede a certain amount of territory, and to furnish fuel for the English steamers on the Indus. The day after the treaty was signed they attacked the house of the English Commissioner. Sir Charles Napier, who commanded the subsidiary troops, quickly brought up his forces. He defeated the united armies of the Amirs at **Miani**. The following month, another victory, gained at **Haidarabad**, was followed up by the capture of Mirpur and Amarkot (the birth-place of Akbar). The rest of the country was soon subdued. Sind was annexed to the British possessions.

1843 A.D.

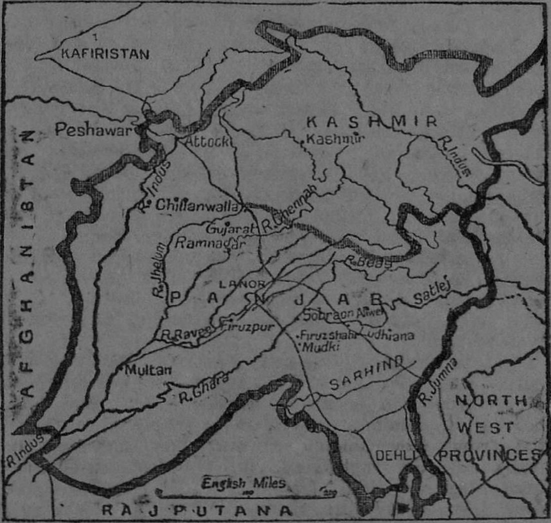
311. Troubles in Gwalior.—There was a disputed succession in Gwalior. The army, which was large out of all proportion to the necessities of the State, had become the dominant power, and a source of danger to the British Government. An army was, therefore, got ready under Sir Hugh Gough, and the Governor-General himself set out with it from Agra. The Gwalior forces were defeated at **Maharajpur** and **Punniar**. A council of regency was set up, which was required to act on the advice of the Resident. The army was reduced. Territory was ceded for maintaining the Gwalior Contingent. Since that time the Maharaja of Gwalior has been a faithful feudatory of the British Government.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

LORD HARDINGE: THE FIRST SIKH WAR.

1844 A.D. TO 1847. A.D.

312. The First Sikh war.—After the death of Ranjit Singh in 1839, the Sikh chiefs formed themselves into a Council of State, known as the **Khalsa**, "the saved or liberated," and carried on the government of the country. But in every regiment of the Khalsa army there were



punchayets or committees of five, whose united opinion guided the whole action of the army. They resolved to attack the English. On the 11th December they crossed the Satlej to the number of sixty thousand soldiers, forty

thousand armed followers, with one hundred and fifty large guns. The forces at the command of the Governor-General amounted to forty thousand five hundred men with ninety-four guns. The Sikh army had been greatly under-rated by the British Government. Trained as they were by European officers, and bound together in a common religious brotherhood, they were capable of presenting an opposition such as no other native army had ever shown. At **Mudki, Firuzshahr, Aliwal** and **Sobraon** they fought with the utmost bravery and obstinacy. **Sobraon**, indeed, proved to be one of the hardest fought battles in the history of British India. The Sikhs were prepared to conquer or die for their Khalsa. Again and again were the British forces rolled back under the murderous fire of the Sikhs; again and again did they advance to the attack. At last the Sikh entrenchment was pierced in three places. The Sikhs, thus pressed on three sides, were driven into a confused mass; but they contested every inch of ground, and, finally, as the bridge across the Satlej had been broken, they plunged into the river rather than surrender to the victors. Three days later the English army crossed the Satlej and advanced to Lahor. There the Governor-General dictated his own terms of peace. The terms were: (1) the Jalandhar Doab was annexed; (2) Dhulip Singh, the son of Ranjit Singh, was acknowledged Raja of Lahor, with a Council of Regency, who in all matters were to be directed and controlled by an English Resident; (3) the Sikhs were to pay the expenses of the war; (4) a British force was to be stationed at Lahor, to support the new Government.

1845 A.D.

313. Progress.—For two years after this war there was peace in India, and Lord Hardinge applied himself with heart and will to the advancement of the good of the country. He gave a great impulse to the project of constructing railways. Lord William Bentinck had put an end to sati within British territories, but the immolation of women, human sacrifices and infanticide were still common in the native states. Lord Hardinge used all the influence of a paramount power to induce the native states to abolish such customs, and with great success. Sunday

labour in Government offices was abolished. Octroi duties were done away with. Natives were largely employed in the public service.

CHAPTER XXXV.

LORD DALHOUSIE: THE SECOND SIKH WAR.

1848 A.D. TO 1856 A.D.

314. Lord Dalhousie, the next Governor-General, landed at Calcutta in January 1848. For eight years he ruled India, and the effects of his administration were seen in the happiness and peace he brought to the millions of inhabitants in the land.

315. The Second Sikh war.—Lord Dalhousie had been but a few months in India when **Vans Agnew,** a Bengal Civilian, who had been sent to introduce the new revenue system that had been adopted at Lahor into Multan, was treacherously murdered at the instigation of **Mulraj**, the viceroy. Mulraj then proclaimed a religious war against the English. The rebellion quickly spread. A plot to murder all the English at Lahor was discovered. Lord Dalhousie saw that the Sikh war must be fought over again, and he determined that it should be followed by the annexation of the Panjab to the British possessions. An army under Lord Gough crossed the Ravi. At **Ramnagar** they came up with the enemy and gained a doubtful victory. General Whish carried Multan

1849 A.D. by storm after a tremendous cannonade. The body of Vans Agnew was disinterred, carried to the highest point of the citadel and buried with military honours.

316. Meanwhile a most sanguinary battle was fought at **Chillianwalla.** Both the Sikhs and the British claimed a victory. Both sides fired salutes in honour of it. The British captured twelve guns. But four of their guns and the colours of three regiments were carried off by the Sikhs. The British loss was two thousand four hundred officers and men. When the news of this disaster reached

England, all was alarm and indignation. Lord Gough was at once recalled, and Sir Charles Napier sent out to take the command. But before the news of Lord Gough's recall reached India, he had retrieved his fame by the crowning victory of Gujarat (22nd February), known as "the battle of the guns," because it was won chiefly through the use of artillery. In this battle, the Sikhs were utterly defeated. The Sikh army was reduced to a mere wreck. The Sikh chieftains surrendered.

317. Annexation of the Panjab.—Lord Dalhousie issued a proclamation declaring the kingdom of the Panjab at an end. A pension of five lakhs a year was given to Dhulip Singh, and he has since lived in England as an English land-owner. The leaders of the rebellion were deprived of their jaghirs. The people in the Panjab were disarmed. The lands were leased and the land tax reduced; and more than thirty thousand of the Khalsa army exchanged the sword for the plough-share. Transit duties were abolished. Slavery and dacoity were put down with a high hand, and all the weight of the Government was employed, and employed successfully in stopping infanticide. Roads and canals were constructed throughout the length and breadth of the land. The government introduced into the province did honour to European civilization. Many of the Sikh soldiers, that had fought so bravely at Sobraon or Chillianwalla, enlisted under the British flag, and during the sepoy mutiny of 1857 were the first to assist in recovering Delhi from the hands of the mutineers.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

LORD DALHOUSIE: MATERIAL PROGRESS.

1848 A.D. TO 1856 A.D.

318. Annexation of Pegu.—Three years after the conquest of the Panjab, Lord Dalhousie was most reluctantly forced into a war with Burma. The English merchants, who were being greatly oppressed by the Burmese officials, applied to the Indian Government for

protection. A force of eight thousand men was sent from Calcutta. Rangoon was captured. Basin and
1852 A.D. Prome fell before the English. The Burmese eagerly sued for peace. Pegu was added to the British possessions, and a Chief Commissioner was appointed over British Burma.

319. Annexation of Nagpur.—Nagpur had been a feudatory State since 1813 (para. 295). In 1853
1853 A.D. the Raja died leaving no issue. Lord Dalhousie thereupon annexed Nagpur to the British possessions, and it now forms part of the Central Provinces.

320. Renewal of the Charter.—In this year, the Company's Charter was renewed *for the last time* under certain new conditions, the principal of which were:—The number of the Court of Directors was reduced from thirty to eighteen, of whom six were to be nominated by the crown. Appointments in the Civil Service were thrown open to competition.

321. Annexation of Oudh.—The government of Oudh was one monstrous system of corruption.
1856 A.D. Offices were sold to the highest bidders, and the purchasers re-couped themselves by plunder and extortion. Lord Dalhousie and the Court of Directors resolved to put an end to such a Government. The king was removed to Calcutta, and Oudh was annexed to the British possessions.

322. Barar ceded.—In order to secure payment of the large sums of money the British Government had advanced to meet the expenses of the Nizam's Contingent, Lord Dalhousie compelled the Nizam to cede the province of Barar. Since then Barar has been under British administration; but all surplus revenue is handed over to the Nizam's treasury.

323. Material Progress.—Lord Dalhousie's name is not associated only with the large annexations he made to the British possessions. He introduced reforms into every part of the administration, and his influence was felt in every province and in every department of Government. The first railway in India was opened in 1853. During Lord Dalhousie's administration, four thousand miles of

electric telegraph were constructed, and two thousand miles of road made. The Ganges canal, the longest in the world, was opened. Most important schemes of education were set on foot. The Indian Universities were established. A cheap and uniform rate of postage was introduced, and a great scheme of Public Works, to be carried on by borrowing money, was planned.

324. In 1856 Lord Dalhousie sailed for England. He had laboured incessantly for eight years for the good of India. His health had given way under so much work and so much anxiety. Four years after his return to England he sank into an early grave. But he left behind him a name that will ever have a place in the first rank of the Governor-Generals of British India.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

LORD CANNING: THE SEPOY MUTINY.

1856 A.D. TO 1858 A.D.

325. Lord Canning was the last Governor-General. During the first years of his administration, a storm burst over the plains of Hindustan that shook the British power to its very foundation, that led to the abolition of the East India Company, and placed India directly under Her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland.

326. Causes that led to the mutiny.—Early in 1857, a new rifle, called the Enfield rifle, was being introduced into the native army. It required new cartridges, and these were greased in England with the fat of the pig and the cow. The sepoys were superstitious and credulous to the highest degree. When the railways were being laid, and the telegraph wires were being put up, they believed that the English were binding India with chains. This new rifle was to them another mystery, and reason were at once sought for as to why the English should introduce it into the native army. Reasons were soon forthcoming from their excited brains. Caste, they imagined, was to

be abolished. They thought they were to be forced to become Christians, and to eat of the cow and the pig as the English did.

327. The Outbreak of the mutiny.—Soon there was a restlessness throughout the whole native army. The storm burst in all its fury at **Meerut**. One day when cartridges of the same kind as had hitherto been used were handed out to the sepoys, eighty-four of their number refused to take them. After being tried, seventy-four of these were sent to gaol. The next day was Sunday, the 10th May. From early morning there was a commotion in the town. The sepoys, taunted by the citizens for allowing their comrades to be sent to gaol, became excited, and the excitement grew to a frenzy. Joined by the rabble, they attacked the gaol, set the prisoners free, murdered every European,—man, woman, and child—they could find, and when they had plundered and set fire to the station, they set off to Delhi.

1857 A.D.

328. Delhi in the hands of the rebels.—Monday at Delhi was even worse than Sunday at Meerut. The rebels from Meerut were joined by the Delhi sepoys who shot down their officers; and Bahadur Shah, fancying that this revolt would lead to his being reinstated on the throne of Babar, placed himself at their head. The Europeans of the palace were murdered. By nightfall Delhi was lost to the English. Those that had survived the day's disasters were forced to flee for their lives under cover of the night. The news of the revolt was carried from station to station. The sepoys rushed on their officers, put them and every European they met to the sword, and hurried off to the Mughal capital or some other centre of the mutiny.

329. Massacre at Cawnpur.—Near Cawnpur was Bithaur, the residence of **Nana Sahib**, the adopted son of Baji Rao. The British Government had refused to continue to him the personal allowance of eight lakhs a year which they had paid to Baji Rao, and he burned to have revenge. On the 4th June, the same mad terror seized the sepoys at Cawnpur as at other stations. They flew to arms. Nana Sahib put himself at their head. Their guns were soon got into position, and a destructive fire was poured on the English entrenchments. For three weeks the siege

continued. At last, on the 23rd June, the English laid down their arms, Nana Sahib having offered to give a safe passage to Allahabad. On the morning of the 27th June, the garrison, to the number of four hundred and fifty persons, were crowded into the boats, and they left their moorings to sail down the river. A signal was given. Suddenly a murderous volley was fired from both sides of the river on the occupants of the boats. The thatched roofs of the boats were set on fire and the flames spread from boat to boat. Many of the passengers were murdered in the river. Many, who tried to escape, were shot. The women and children were carried off to the house near the head-quarters of Nana Sahib. Of the whole garrison that left the entrenchments, only four survived to tell of the massacre that had taken place. Retribution for this most terrible crime was not long delayed. Colonel Neill and General Havelock hurried to the rescue, and on the 15th July arrived within eight miles of Cawnpur. On the evening of that day, Nana Sahib filled his cup of iniquity to the brim.

His army had been defeated. In revenge, the English women and children, whom he had in his possession, and who now numbered two hundred persons, were put to death, and their mangled corpses were thrown into a well. Next day, Havelock entered Cawnpur. There the English army beheld the bleeding victims, but the murderers had fled. Bithaur was at once taken, and Havelock set out for Lucknow, leaving Neill at Cawnpur.

330. Capture of Delhi.—By the 14th September, the English forces on the ridge outside Delhi had been increased to eight thousand men, and on that day they made their final assault on the mighty city. A breach having been effected, they rushed in, and after continuous house-to-house fighting for six days, the city was taken. Captain Hodson captured Bahadur Shah at the tomb of Humayun and brought him back to Delhi. He was found guilty of murder and treason, and was transported to Rangoon, where he died four years after. With him passed away the last relic of Mughal sovereignty.

331. Relief of Lucknow.—The capture of Delhi was the turning point in the history of the mutiny. But

there was still much to be done before quiet could be restored. The Residency at Lucknow was besieged. The good and noble Sir Henry Lawrence had continued to hold it against the besiegers, and to inspire every man and woman there with his own daring and resolution. But on the 4th July, he had been killed, leaving as a dying counsel to those around him "never surrender." And they had never surrendered. And now (20th September), while the British troops were recovering Delhi, Havelock crossed the Ganges and six days thereafter cut his way through the streets of Lucknow, and entered the British entrenchments in triumph. The garrison was thus relieved; but the siege was not raised. For four months longer the rebels held the city.

332. Suppression of the mutiny.—Meanwhile, **Sir Colin Campbell** (Lord Clyde) had arrived in India, and had put to rout the Gwalior Contingent that had revolted under Tantia Topi, and had recovered Cawnpur. Lucknow next fell before him. In the general campaign that followed, the rebels were everywhere hunted down and the British sovereignty was restored in Oudh and Rohilkhand. At the same time, Sir Hugh Rose with a small but well-appointed force advanced from Bombay. Jhansi was captured, Kalpi stormed, a force of two thousand men under Tantia Topi scattered, and the troops of Sindia, who at the instigation of Tantia Topi had rebelled, were routed. Tantia Topi himself was taken, tried, convicted and hanged. The rebellion was quelled. It only remained for the victors to temper justice with mercy. The leaders in the rebellion—such as could be secured—were punished. The ignorant and misguided sepoys were forgiven. The faithful were rewarded. The Nana Sahib, the greatest of the miscreants, escaped, and it is supposed died in Nepal.

333. Political changes.—Great political changes followed from the mutiny. By an act of Parliament, the East India Company was abolished, and India was placed under the direct control of Her Majesty Queen Victoria. The administration of India was intrusted to a Secretary of State, aided by fifteen Councillors, eight of whom must have

2nd Aug. **1858** A.D.

served ten years in India. The Board of Control was abolished, and Lord Canning, by virtue of the change in the Government from the Company to the Crown, became the first Viceroy in India.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

EVENTS SUBSEQUENT TO THE MUTINY.
IMPERIAL RULE.

1858 A.D. TO 1882 A.D.

334. The Queen's Proclamation.—On the 1st November 1858, the proclamation of Her Most Gracious Majesty Queen Victoria was publicly read at all the principal stations in India, and was translated into all the Vernacular languages. It proclaimed the transfer of the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. It made known that the British Government had no desire or intention of interfering in any way with the religion or caste of the Hindus. It confirmed all existing treaties, rights and usages, and proclaimed a free pardon to all rebels except such as had been implicated in the murder of the British. In the following year Lord Canning held a grand durbar at Agra, and publicly announced that native rulers in default of natural heirs would be at liberty to adopt sons, who would succeed to the Government of their several States. In 1862 Lord Canning left India. He was one of the most laborious and conscientious statesmen that ever ruled India. He died within a few months after his return to England, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

335. Lord Elgin succeeded Lord Canning as Viceroy. His reign is associated with two mountain expeditions. The one was against a colony of Hindustani fanatics or **Wahabis**, who ever since 1831 had settled in the mountains in the north-west, and were constantly making raids on British territory. The other, against **Bhutan**, arose from a somewhat similar cause. Both Wahabis and Bhutanese were soon brought to reason Since then there has been peace on their frontier

336. Sir John Lawrence.—Before the war with Bhutan was ended, Lord Elgin died. He was succeeded by Sir John Lawrence, a civil servant, who had shown great statesmanship in his administration of the Panjab after its annexation. The policy adopted by Sir John Lawrence with reference to Afghanistan has been much discussed. There was a fratricidal war in that country. At one time Sher Ali was recognised as Amir of the whole of Afghanistan. But, when Afzal Khan, his elder brother, drove him out of Kabul, and he had to flee to Kandahar, Sir John Lawrence recognized the conqueror as ruler of Kabul, and Sher Ali as ruler of only Kandahar. Subsequently, Sher Ali recovered the whole of the country and was again acknowledged Amir; and everything was done to secure his friendship. For Russia was again intriguing and advancing far into Central Asia, and the policy of Sir John Lawrence was to secure a friendly Afghanistan as a bulwark against Russian aggression. Sir John Lawrence returned to England in 1869. He was raised to the peerage. Ten years later he died, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. He was one of the greatest statesmen of this century, and no man has done more for the good of India than he did.

337. Lord Mayo succeeded. Shortly after his arrival he had an interview with Sher Ali at Umballa, which tended much to strengthen the bond of friendship between the British Government and the Amir. In 1872 Lord Mayo went to Burma. On his way back to Calcutta he visited the Andamans, and there, in the dusk of the evening, he was stabbed by an Afghan, who had been sentenced to penal servitude for life on account of a murder he had committed, and who now in his blind revenge put an end to the life of one of the most promising and most popular of Viceroys.

338. Lord Northbrook succeeded Lord Mayo, and he in turn was succeeded by **Lord Lytton** in 1876. Lord Lytton ruled as Viceroy till 1880. Two events took place during this period, that no doubt will become landmarks in the future History of India,—the visit of the Prince of Wales in 1875-76, and the proclamation at Delhi on the first January 1877 of Her Majesty Queen Victoria as

Empress of India. During Lord Lytton's administration the friendship with Sher Ali was broken. The latter received a Russian embassy at Kabul and refused to receive an English embassy. War was declared. Sher Ali was forced to flee into Russian territory, where he died. Yakub Khan was placed on his father's throne and a British Resident was stationed at Kabul. The uproar of 1841 at Kabul was repeated. The Resident, Sir Louis Cavagnari and his staff were massacred. Yakub Khan was forced to abdicate and is now a prisoner in India. An avenging force was sent into Afghanistan. As on the previous occasion, Kandahar fell and Kabul was captured.

339. Lord Ripon succeeded Lord Lytton as Viceroy. The English troops were again withdrawn from Afghanistan, and Abdur Rahman, the eldest male representative of Dost Muhammad, was recognized Amir of Afghanistan.

Lord Ripon endeared himself to the people of India by the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, and the introduction of a system of Self-Government by which the management of local affairs was entrusted to Boards and Municipalities. Since the Government of India passed to the Crown the municipal constitution in towns had been growing up slowly. But larger powers were conferred upon the Local Boards and Municipalities by the Local Self-Government Act of 1882. Since Local Self-Government cannot be a success without the education of the people, Lord Ripon appointed an Education Commission to devise measures for the extension of popular education.

340. Lord Dufferin succeeded Lord Ripon in 1884.—Soon after his arrival in India he received the Amir of Kabul at a grand Durbar at Rawalpindi. Then he had to turn his attention to the Western Frontiers of Afghanistan where Russia was attempting to extend her territories. Herat was threatened every moment and India was on the brink of a war with Russia. But Lord Dufferin prevented it by securing the appointment of a Commission of English and Russian officers who defined the boundaries of Afghanistan. It was at this time that the Indian Princes and Feudatories offered their troops to help the Government in the event of a war with Russia.

341. The Third Burmese War, 1885.—The most important political event in the time of Lord Dufferin was the annexation of Burma. The country was misgoverned by King Thebaw. Neither property nor person was safe there. It abounded in bands of robbers who very often entered even British territories. Moreover the grant of monopolies of every kind of produce in the country interfered much with the British trade at Rangoon. The appeals of the India Government to King Thebaw were all in vain. On the other hand, he insolently threatened to invade British India. So a few English steamers were sent up the Irrawady, and Mandalay the capital of Upper Burma was taken. The king was deposed and brought as a prisoner to India. The country was annexed by a proclamation on the first day of the year 1886.

342. The Jubilee of 1887.—As Her Majesty the Queen of England and Empress of India completed the fiftieth year of her reign in 1887, a Jubilee was held with great pomp to celebrate the event and this occasion brought out clearly the love and reverence that the people of India had for their noble ruler. About this time Lord Dufferin secured the confidence of the Native Princes of India by restoring part of Gwalior to the Maharaja Sindhia and endeared himself to its people by the appointment of a Public Service Commission to consider and advise on the question of the appointment of qualified Indians to the higher offices in the State.

343. Lord Lansdowne—1888 A.D.-1894 A.D.—The new Viceroy first directed his attention to the Western Frontiers of the country and assisted the Indian Chiefs in forming an Imperial Service Corps for their defence. The Senapati of Manipur murdered five Englishmen. So a British force was sent into the State, the Raja was deposed and the Senapati executed. In 1892 the Legislative Councils were enlarged and their powers extended. The local bodies were given the power of electing a few of their members. The councils were also empowered to discuss the annual financial statements made by the Government, and to put questions at their meetings on administrative matters. The census

of 1891 also was more complete and correct than any former operation of the kind.

344. Lord Elgin II—1894 A.D.-1899 A.D.—The peace of the country and the happiness of its people were marred by war, famine and plague. On the North-West Frontier of India the most important event was the Chitral expedition (1894-95) which led to the more effective control of the western passes. Now Chitral may be considered the watch-tower of the Indian Empire. A dreadful epidemic called the bubonic plague broke out in India at this time and carried off hundreds and thousands in many parts of the country. Medical science could not do much to check its spread. But it is now arrested by better sanitation in cities and by inoculation. In 1897 a severe famine drove the inhabitants of Central and Northern India into misery. But thousands were saved by relief works and the other beneficent measures of the Government. At the same time a severe earthquake shook North-Eastern India and caused much damage to property. In the west the fierce tribesmen of Tirah raided British territory and a successful expedition was led against them. Lord Elgin retired in 1899 and was succeeded by Lord Curzon of Keddleston.

345. Lord Curzon—1899 A.D.-1905 A.D.—The aim of the new Viceroy was to secure peace and ensure good administration. But when he reached India he had to combat the severe famine in the country which had rendered more than three millions of its people miserable. In 1901 the death of Queen Victoria caused great grief in the country. In 1903 Edward VII was proclaimed Emperor of India at a splendid durbar at Delhi. This was attended by thousands of people from the distant parts of India and almost all its feudatory princes and rulers.

346. Lord Curzon's Reforms.—The rest of his administration was taken up with his numerous reforms. The creation of the North-West Frontier Province strengthened the Western Frontiers of the country. The long contemplated division of the huge Presidency of Bengal and the formation of the new Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam lightened the work of the over-worked

rulers of the former and improved the dignity of the latter. All the departments of the State were thoroughly examined and improved. Much attention was bestowed upon education, sanitation, protection of the people and extension of railways. Instruction in the vernaculars was revived and the Indian Universities were reformed thoroughly. The Police Corps was strengthened and purified. The finances of the State were so satisfactory that he found it possible to reduce the Salt and Income-taxes. Several important changes were made in military affairs which, however, led to his resignation in 1905.

347. Lord Minto II—1905 A.D.-1910 A.D.—The Earl of Minto had been Governor-General in Canada before he came to India. He gained the love and esteem of his subjects by his tact, patience and sympathy. He preserved order with a firm hand. He was not slow to introduce such reforms as the progress of the country demanded. The Executive and Legislative Councils were expanded and more representatives of the people were given place in them. In 1905 George Prince of Wales visited India and its ancient cities and gave its people the pleasure and the privilege of showing their reverence to the Crown. But the last year of Lord Minto's Viceroyalty saw the sudden death of Emperor Edward VII the 'Peace-maker' of Europe and the accession of his son the King-Emperor George V to the throne

348. Lord Hardinge of Penshurst—1910 A.D.—1916 A.D.—Lord Minto was succeeded by a statesman of no small reputation in Lord Hardinge of Penshurst, a grandson of the first Governor-General of this name. The new Viceroy gained the hearts of the people of India by his kindness, sympathy and coolness even under difficulties. The peace of the country was well maintained and the expenses of Government were visibly reduced. He encouraged learning, helped on the spread of education and sanctioned the establishment of new Universities. Several Royal Commissions collected very valuable evidence regarding the real condition of India. In 1914 when the great world-war broke out in Europe between England and Germany, the people of

India did not stint men and money to save the honour and prestige of the Empire. Such was the popularity of Lord Hardinge that his term of office was extended by six months. He left India in April 1916 and his place was taken by Lord Chelmsford who during a stay of about twelve months in Hindustan as a military officer had learnt much of this country and its people. There is every reason for hoping that the country may continue to prosper under a succession of such high-minded and capable statesmen.

349. The Coronation of the King-Emperor George V.—For the first time in the History of India and of England, the Coronation of the British Sovereign in Indian soil sent a thrill of joy throughout the vast Empire on the 12th December, 1911. Thousands of Indian peoples and Indian Chiefs assembled in the historic city of Delhi to do homage to their Emperor and Suzerain on the happy occasion. The second visit of George V to this vast dependency has strengthened not a little the ties between England and India. The occasion has been rendered very memorable by the grant of several boons to the country, the re-formation of the Presidency of Bengal under a Governor-in-Council and the transfer of its capital to the ancient and renowned city of Delhi.

350. Britain's Work in India.—Britain has given India abiding peace. The country no longer suffers from Pindari raids, Mahratta wars and Pathan massacres. The din of battle has not been heard in many parts of the country for more than a century. The Indian shores are protected by the mighty British navy. Post, railway and telegraph have rendered communication marvellously cheap and easy. Trade and commerce have increased astonishingly during the last twenty years. Education has been thrown open to all and no man suffers for his religion under the British Raj.

Leading dates of the British Period.

	A.D.
First Charter to the East India Company	1599
Madras granted to the English	1639
Fort William made a Presidency	1707
The United East India Company formed	1708
Madras captured by the French	1746
Dupleix at the zenith of his power	1750
Robert Clive at Arcot	1751
Treaty of Pondicherry	1755
The Black Hole Tragedy	1756
Battle of Plassey	1757
Defeat of the Dutch at Chinsura	1759
Battle of Vandivash	1759
Massacre of Patna	1763
Battle of Baxar	1764
Battle of Korah	1765
Clive finally returns to England	1767
Treaty of Madras	1769
The Regulating Act	1773
Treaty of Benares	1774
Treaty of Surat	1775
Treaty of Purandhar	1776
Convention of Wargam	1778
Battle of Porto Novo	1781
Treaty of Salbai	1782
Treaty of Mangalore	1784
Pitt's Bill	1784
Peace of Seringapatam	1792
The Permanent Revenue Settlement	1793
Battle of Kurdla	1795
Fall of Seringapatam	1799
Battle of Puna	1801
Treaty of Basin	1802
The Second Mahratta War	1803
Battle of Assai	1803
Battle of Argam	1803
Treaty of Dewalgaon	1803
Battle of Laswari	1803
Treaty of Sirji Anjengaon	1803
The Third Mahratta War	1804
Battle of Dig	1804
The Vellore Mutiny	1806
War in Nepal	1814
Peace of Sigauli	1816
The Peshwa deposed	1818
The Pindaris overthrown	1819
The First Burmese War	1824

Leading Dates.

	A.D.
Peace of Yendabu	1826
Capture of Bhartpur	1826
The First Afghan War	1838
Retreat and Massacre of the English	1842
Annexation of Sind	1843
The First Sikh War	1845
The Second Sikh War	1848
Battle of Chilianwalla	1849
Annexation of Pegu	1852
Annexation of Nagpur	1853
Annexation of Oudh	1856
The Sepoy Mutiny	1857
Abolition of the East India Company	1858
Queen Victoria's Proclamation	1858
Visit of the Prince of Wales	1875
Queen Victoria-Empress of India	1877
The Local Self-Government Act	1882
The Third Burmese War	1885
The Annexation of Burma	1886
The Death of Queen Victoria	1901
Edward VII King-Emperor of India	1903
The Death of King-Emperor Edward VII	1910
The Accession of King-Emperor George V	1910
The Delhi Coronation Durbar	1911
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